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TOWARD THE REFORMULATION OF STANDARDS FOR SECONDARY SCHOOLS

For several years there has been discontent with the standards applied to high schools seeking approval by agencies of accreditation and with the procedures followed in applying the standards. The dissatisfaction has not been restricted to persons in charge of schools which come up for consideration but has spread also among those who are called on to apply the standards. Although most of the standards are objective and on this account can be applied with a minimum of uncertainty, the conviction grows that for a school to qualify on them is no certain indication of its educational efficiency. The discontent has recently become articulate enough to prompt discussion of the desirability and feasibility of canvassing by investigation the whole question of acceptable items in the standards and of procedures in standardization. The following portions of a report of deliberations by certain representatives of our regional accrediting agencies indicate the steps that have been taken toward instituting a comprehensive inquiry. The organization proposed to foster the inquiry is referred to as the Committee for Co-operative Study of Secondary-School Standards and Accrediting Procedures.

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For more than a quarter of a century regional accrediting agencies have been rendering a valuable and voluntary service to colleges and secondary schools. As a guide and help in doing this work, standards have been developed for use in evaluating the effectiveness of these institutions. For the most part, these standards have been satisfactory until the last few years. Realizing, however, that times have changed, the leaders of the different associations have begun to question and to study their own stated policies, standards, and recommendations. This is notably exemplified in the extensive study now being carried on by the Commission on Institutions of Higher Education of the North Central Association, extending over a period of four years.

In keeping with this idea that a study should be made of the work already accomplished, the several secondary commissions have been considering the need for an examination of standards which they are now using in accrediting secondary schools, both public and private, throughout the nation. The present standards are largely quantitative in nature, measuring as they do certain conditions, including physical facilities, which are thought to be conducive to the operation of an effective school. It is felt that the new standards should be qualitative in character and should set up a way of measuring or identifying the quality of the product, or of the process, or of both, in terms of the objectives of the school. This feeling of need for shift in emphasis has apparently arisen in different parts of the country and along with it the further conviction that a more effective study can be conducted if all associations pool their interests and resources in one concerted attack on the problem.

This idea of a co-operative attack on problems confronting these associations is by no means new. As early as 1928 a plan for a study of secondary schools holding membership in regional agencies was developed by the National Committee on Research in Secondary Education and approved by a number of these organizations. However, before the plan could be put into operation, authorization was made by Congress for the National Survey of Secondary Education. It was felt that the co-operative study should await the results of the National Survey; the project for a co-operative study by the associations was therefore postponed. The idea of a co-operative study of nation-wide scope was revived at the annual meeting of the Middle States Association in November, 1931, when a resolution was passed proposing the appointment of a commission to study secondary-school and college relations—this commission to include representatives of the several regional associations. The project was deferred because of the pressure of the economic situation.

The first effort in the direction of a co-operative study of standards was suggested by the National Association of Officers of Regional Associations at their fifth annual meeting in Washington, February, 1932. A resolution was adopted that each regional association appoint representatives to meet as a committee for the discussion of a study of secondary-school standards. Subsequently each association was approached by the officers of the National Association; all of them expressed definite interest and willingness to co-operate except the

Western Association, from which no reply was received. It was thought wise, however, to delay the promotion of this project until the results of the National Survey of Secondary Education and the study of standards of institutions of higher education in the North Central Association were available.

By the spring of 1933 these two projects were well advanced, and the North Central Association at its session in April of that year authorized the chairman of the Commission on Secondary Schools to appoint the twenty state chairmen as a committee on the study of standards for accrediting secondary schools. From this general committee the chairman appointed a subcommittee of five to act as an executive committee and to be the representatives of the North Central Association to work in co-operation with other regional associations. A small amount of money was appropriated by the North Central Association for use in getting the study started.

This committee of five and representatives of the Southern Association and the Middle States Association met in Chicago on July 3, 1933, at the time of the National Education Association meetings, to consider the possibility of working together. Dr. George F. Zook, now United States Commissioner of Education, met with this group. Before the day's discussion had closed, it was clear that everyone present felt the need for enlisting the interest and active support of all regional associations of colleges and secondary schools and possibly the help of other agencies. Definite need was felt for making the study on a nation-wide basis. As a next step Commissioner Zook, at the request of the group, agreed to call together at an early date in the Office of Education representatives of all the regional associations.

The call was sent out, and the response received to the invitation was immediate and enthusiastic. On August 18 and 19 the following men, named by the several associations as their representatives, met in Washington to organize and plan a program. New England Association: Arthur W. Lowe, Portland High School, Portland, Maine. Middle States Association: William A. Wetzel, Trenton High School, Trenton, New Jersey (unable to attend); Richard M. Gummere, William Penn Charter School, Philadelphia, and E. D. Grizzell, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, as substitutes for William M. Lewis, Lafayette College, Easton, Pennsylvania, and George W. McClelland, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia; Karl G. Miller, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia; Walter J. O'Connor, Georgetown University, Washington, D.C. Southern Association: J. Henry Highsmith, State Department of Public Instruction, Raleigh, North Carolina; Joseph Roemer, George Peabody College for Teachers, Nashville, Tennessee, as substitute for W. A. Bass, State Department of Education, Nashville, Tennessee; William R. Smithey, University of Virginia, Charlottesville, Virginia. North Central Association: J. T. Giles, State Department of Public Instruction, Madison, Wisconsin; Carl G. F. Franzen, University of Indiana, Bloomington, Indiana; A. A. Reed, University of Nebraska, Lincoln, Nebraska; M. R. Owens, State Department of Education, Little Rock, Arkansas; G. E. Carrothers, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Michigan.

Associations invited to send delegates but not represented at the meeting were the Western Association and the Northwest Association.

The following persons were present in addition to those representing regional organizations: George F. Zook, United States Commissioner of Education; Carl A. Jessen, Office of Education; E. J. Ashbaugh, Miami University, Oxford, Ohio, chairman of the National Committee on Research in Secondary Education; D. H. Gardner, University of Akron, Akron, Ohio, member of the Committee on the Revision of Standards for Higher Institutions of the North Central Association; J. W. Diefendorf, University of New Mexico, Albuquerque, New Mexico, state chairman for the North Central Association in New Mexico.

The results of deliberation by this group are briefly summarized in the following set of ten proposals formulated toward the close of the meeting.

It is proposed:

1. That the regional associations of colleges and secondary schools shall enter into a co-operative study of standards and procedures for evaluating secondary schools.
2. That present standards and procedures of the various regional associations be continued in effect until new and/or revised standards and procedures are formulated and adopted by these associations.
3. That the new standards be derived by: (a) testing all old standards and retaining such part or parts of them as prove valid and satisfactory, (b) evolving new standards through research.
4. That procedures for evaluating secondary schools on the basis of all standards shall be developed through careful experimentation.
5. That on the basis of the new and revised standards and procedures for evaluation of secondary schools, a program of stimulation for further growth shall be initiated and developed.
6. That for the purposes of carrying forward this program the greatest possible use should be made of the existing machinery of regional associations.
7. That this proposed program be presented to all the regional associations of colleges and secondary schools with a view to securing their co-operation and support.
8. That a careful statement of the proposed study be prepared and presented to some foundation in order to secure adequate funds with which to carry on the program.
9. That, since uniform standards are not likely to meet the needs of each region, all standards must be adapted by the different associations to the conditions of their own territories.
10. That there shall be established at this time two committees with the following membership from regional associations. These two committees may invite representatives of other organizations to sit with them as consulting members. The representatives on the general committee shall be named by the respective associations. The members of the executive committee shall be named by the general committee.

Association	Representation on—	
	General Committee	Executive Committee
New England.....	3	1
Middle States.....	5	2
Southern.....	5	2
North Central.....	5	2
Northwest.....	2	1
Western.....	1	1
Total.....	21	9

The Executive Committee, in a session immediately following the closing meeting of the larger committee, decided that its first major responsibility is the preparation of statements appropriate for use in (1) securing support for the study of standards by the several regional associations and (2) obtaining a grant from some foundation for the conduct of the research program. The same committee set November 4 and 5 as the time for the further consideration of this responsibility.

The whole project is so deserving that every encouragement should be given those who are promoting it—encouragement which includes the financial resources to conduct an inclusive investigation. The time is a difficult one in which to look for funds, but it is a time also when standards, especially those entailing outlays of school funds, are under criticism. We should have no fear that co-operative investigation of standards on a nation-wide basis will conduce to the extension of cramping uniformity; it is much more likely to dispel much of the educational dogma implicit in many of the standards—standards that had their origins in narrow beliefs of individuals or committees and that may not survive discriminating objective scrutiny.

A USED-TEXTBOOK EXCHANGE IN THE HIGH SCHOOL

Textbooks should be available for use without cost to pupils in elementary and secondary schools. The expense to the community of supplying free textbooks is small when compared with the total per pupil cost of free education. It has been previously stated in these pages that to balk at providing free textbooks while paying all the remaining costs in a system of free schools is like straining at a gnat while swallowing a camel. However, there are still many

schools and districts which have not been committed to the plan of free textbooks, and in these days of curtailment of educational expenditures it is unlikely that the movement will gain much ground, notwithstanding the desirability is even greater now than formerly.

In schools without free textbooks the question often turns on some plan that will reduce the cost of textbooks to patrons and, in this connection, some systematization and control of the sale and exchange of used textbooks. It is in keeping with the reduced family incomes of the present period that there should be increased traffic in used textbooks. Where no systematization of the traffic has been instituted, certain evil practices arise in dealings among pupils, for example, the theft of used books from lockers of some pupils for sale to other pupils. Various means have been devised to control the traffic in used books. Readers may be interested in the plan in operation in the senior high school at Minot, North Dakota, as described by the principal, J. H. Colton, in the columns of the *Minot Daily News*. We quote portions only of Mr. Colton's article.

[During] the summer [of 1933] a definite procedure for the exchange was decided upon, and final plans announced at the first assembly of the senior high school, and given further publicity through the press. A committee consisting of A. I. Vigard, A. R. Monson, and A. J. Snowbeck, working with the principal, formulated a report which was the working basis for the exchange.

This report indicates the purpose of the exchange as follows: The used-book exchange is meant to be a systematic and orderly plan for the sale and distribution of second-hand texts in senior high school. We believe that this plan will eliminate much confusion in the exchange of books and also will do away with suspicious cases of stealing and racketeering in texts. The operation of the exchange has been through each teacher of an academic subject, who became assistants to the committee. Each teacher, then, had charge of the collection and distribution of texts in his own subject.

Students who wished to dispose of used texts brought these to the instructor, who, with the student, agreed upon a price consistent with the condition of the text. Four classifications were made of used books. These were good, fair, poor, and unsalable. Using the cost of the book when new as a basis, the exchange price was set at two-thirds, one-half, or one-third of the original price.

This sale price was then marked in ink on a buff book label, together with the name of the student who presented the book to be sold and the date of the trust transaction. This label, printed on glued paper, was then pasted in the text on the inside cover. The label contained this statement: "If misplaced, please return this book to the office or to the teacher in whose class it is used. The above blanks are to be filled in ink. No blots or erasures are to be made on

this label. Any erasures or other defacements pointing to questionable ownership will subject the holder to investigation. This label must not be removed, if book is to be presented for resale."

When the book was sold by the teacher, the name of the purchaser was indicated in ink, also his home room. When this second transaction was made, the teacher signed the label, thus giving it official status and completing the operation.

This label, with needed alteration, was used in all texts and thereby insured a protection. The label is entitled "certificate of ownership." Texts are inspected periodically to preserve the integrity of this book label in all its implications.

In order to make the exchange self-supporting, a fee of five cents was laid upon each sale. Correspondence with several schools indicated that this is commonly followed.

The exchange committee has ruled that every book which passes from student to student must go through this exchange. . . .

The exchange has incurred certain expense, aside from the printing of the label. Such amount as remains after expenses are paid will be used for the interests of student activities. The small fee is regarded as an insurance of protection by the student, and the certificate of ownership gives daily evidence that losses of texts are almost zero. The exchange has exceeded the fondest hopes of its sponsors in every detail. Pupils have received more nearly the correct price for texts sold, and books have been available for use earlier than ever before. More important than this is the fact that racketeering in texts has been abolished with consequent temptation to take texts from lockers or elsewhere and offer such for sale. Thus, the aims set forth as moral values of exchange in the preview last spring have been realized.

CONTINUING THE LISTS OF SELECTED REFERENCES

With their December issues the *School Review* and the *Elementary School Journal* are completing the first annual cycle of twenty lists of selected references announced more than a year ago and begun in the January issues. A new cycle will begin with the January, 1934, issues of these journals. Except in minor respects the policies and the specialists preparing the lists remain the same as those of the current year. This similarity makes it unnecessary to announce in detail the lists and the collaborators, as was done a year ago. Readers interested in the topics comprehended by the lists, the names of the specialists, and the issues in which lists on particular topics will be published are referred to the lists as published in the issues of the journals for the current calendar year or to the complete announcements appearing in the *School Review* for December, 1932, and in the *Elementary*

School Journal for January, 1933. The new lists will, of course, include only items published during the year and subsequent to the preparation of the first list in each field.

The lists for the year soon to close have been well received. As published they include a total of 1,149 annotated items. This count does not include a number of cross-references in instances in which items were applicable in more than a single field. The lists are comprehensive enough to bring the scholarly educational worker into touch with the best that is being published in the realm of his special and general professional interests. It may not be out of place to repeat that the cycles of references are in effect a continuance of the service provided in the quarterly *Record of Current Educational Publications*, which was formerly published by the United States Office of Education but which was discontinued by that office as a forced measure of economy. The co-operative publication of the lists in the twenty annual issues of the *School Review* and the *Elementary School Journal* gives the reader access to references of the best writings in practically the whole field of education. This comprehensive service to the educational worker is nowhere else available.

DEFLATING THE SCHOOLS

Our lay magazines would have been remiss indeed had they not devoted much space to consideration of the problems of the economic recession. Many have done so. Some have opened their columns to discussion of the problems of the schools during this distressful period. One of the best treatments of the current difficulties of the schools appearing in recent issues of the magazines is an article in the November issue of *Harpers Magazine* entitled "Deflating the Schools" by Mrs. Avis D. Carlson. The illuminating and constructive character of the treatment is in conspicuous contrast to the cynicism and iconoclasm of Henry L. Mencken dealing with a subject closely allied. The article by Mrs. Carlson contains a highly informative account of the effect of the deflation on the schools of the country, discussion and illustration of the tax muddle that hastened the debacle, and analysis of the approaches that have been made toward retrenchment. We are privileged to quote portions of the second and the third sections as just outlined.

While these closed schools and unpaid salaries are the most spectacular aspect of the deflation which is everywhere going on, they are hardly more significant than several other trends which have been rapidly developing as a result of the increasing shortage of funds available for school purposes.

One of the paradoxes of capitalism is that in the periods when public services are most sorely needed taxes to maintain these services are hardest to collect. At such times the tax problem is a grim one for everyone: grim for every unit of the government because the demands made upon it are multiplied while income falls off sharply through tax delinquency; grim for the individual because a tax bill which was perfectly tolerable during good times now becomes almost or quite intolerable. I do not know whether or not the camel holds the last straw accountable for his broken back, but it seems to be part of human nature to do so. In the last two years I have heard business men whose profits have dwindled to practically nothing, whose assets have frozen hopelessly, and whose savings accounts have disappeared in bank failures, fulminate against the cost of government with a heat which could only mean that they felt taxes to be the center of all their difficulties. I have heard farmers who have suffered two years of twenty-five-cent wheat sizzle about taxes and the parasites who eat up the taxes until one would fancy that all the agricultural woes of the country were directly traceable to the confounded schoolma'ams and office-holders.

We, no less than the ancient Hebrews, must have a scapegoat. During this depression two convenient ones have been available: extravagance in government and fads and frills in education. Any member of a Taxpayers' Association or a Citizens' Committee can testify eloquently as to what extraordinarily difficult creatures these are to handle, how nimbly they leap from under the knife, how stubbornly they resist the withes. What that taxpayer or citizen cannot see is that, by comparison with numbers of other trouble-makers in our economic structure, those two goats are models of tractability. The simple truth is that in comparison with tackling the debt structure, the faulty banking practices, the excess profits, the outworn tax systems, the international economic muddle, the speculative machine which centers in Wall Street, the billion wild horses, or any of the other real villains of the piece, it is ridiculously easy to force down governmental budgets. And so for two years we concentrated on the reduction of taxes.

But even in using this scapegoat method of attacking the depression we have been about as unscientific as we could be. Tax experts and economists had been talking for years about the iniquity of the general property tax, but in 1930 most states were still operating on this antiquated system which places practically the entire state and local tax burden upon real property. Consequently, they were bound to run into a tax emergency as soon as a period of falling prices came. It was perfectly natural that taxpayers should rebel. A twelve-dollar-a-month tax upon a six-room bungalow in a middle western town is exorbitant. No one can deny it or wishes to.

But reforming a tax system is a slow process which must be based upon re-

search and must usually be pressed in legislature after legislature until public opinion is ready for it. The owners of real property, who in a period of economic stricture see rentals reduced until they hardly cover taxes or who face the prospect of losing their homes because they cannot find money for taxes, can scarcely be expected to wait serenely for relief by way of tax reform. Indeed, the average taxpayer does not care about modernizing the tax system. All he wants is that his next tax bill shall not keep him awake at night. The easiest and quickest way to accomplish that end is to use the knife on governmental expenditures. And so it has come about that all over the United States, and especially where the general property tax was in sway, there has been a rising tide of conflict, amounting in some regions to open war, between taxpayers and public services.

Some governmental expenditures are more essential than others, of course, and some are less wastefully made than others. But the average taxpayer is never disposed to investigate and make discriminations. Recently he has been in such straits that he is less than ever inclined to pause for discrimination. He may suspect or know that certain branches of his local government are shot with waste and graft of the most flagrant sort and that others are outworn and useless; but in that field he is either indifferent or convinced of his helplessness. He surely knows that an enormous bonded indebtedness is involving a staggering annual bill for "fixed charges"—but the capitalistic system being what it is, he supposes that fixed charges must remain fixed and sacrosanct. So far as he can see, there is only one thing he can do. He can kick and kick hard about all these governmental trimmings like county nurses and school gymnasiums which have been growing up under his eyes in the last twenty years. Use the knife, legislator, send it deep!

Thus adjured, the legislator has responded nobly. . . .

Here follows the description, not quoted here, of what a number of individual states have done in applying the knife.

Now let us see, if we can, what this budget-slashing, imposed by both circumstance and legislature, is actually doing to the schools. Educators claim that the system is being wrecked, taxpayers' associations that no real harm and much good are being done by the paring away of wasteful excrescences. Wherein lies the truth?

Some economies have undoubtedly been valuable to the schools. No institution is perfectly efficient. Certainly the schools were not. In every school in the country administrative eyes, made suddenly sharp by necessity, have spied out inefficient practices and methods long in use and have put a summary end to them. That sort of economy is a good thing. But, unfortunately, it can account for only a tiny fraction of the millions which have been taken from school budgets.

In general, there are four points at which a board of education sitting down to work out its annual budget may apply the knife: in building and repairs, in textbooks and classroom equipment, in salaries, and in services and curriculums.

The first need not detain us long. It is no longer available at all as a method of economy. At the onset of the depression building programs were abandoned and repairs reduced to a minimum that in many a town will prove a costly economy in the long run, if not an actual danger to life and limb. The results of this three-year stretch of thrift are beginning to be apparent. Since the average school district had spent heavily for building during the decade before 1930 (to compensate for the war years when no construction went on and to accord with the general spirit of "bigger and better"), probably no great harm has yet been done by this halt in building. But depression or no depression, the school population continues to increase by more than 200,000 a year. Present building equipment will not long continue to house a family that grows so rapidly. In many city systems room-shortage is already an acute problem. In fact the 1932-33 term saw about 250,000 children attending school on a part-time basis for lack of school rooms and approximately 150,000 others housed in temporary or portable shacks. To enjoy the Century of Progress one must forget that the eccentric metropolis which stages the show used seven hundred tin shacks in housing its school children last year and has just junked its entire junior high school system in order to gain classroom space for the senior high schools.

The next items to be considered by our hypothetical board in desperate search for something to reduce are textbooks and classroom equipment. Here, too, economy was early in the game carried as far as it could be without serious injury to the quality of instruction offered. It is safe to say that whatever further reduction is being made for the 1933-34 term does offer that injury. With a million more pupils than in 1930, the sale of textbooks had dropped off 30 per cent by the beginning of 1933. Such a contrast in figures can only mean that youngsters are using dog-eared, dirty books, crudely defaced and probably with missing pages. . . .

And now the board comes to salaries. Three courses are open. Salaries may be cut all round, teachers may be released, or at the worst both devices may be resorted to. The first method was the one most often chosen in 1932-33. . . .

The whole question of salaries is an exceedingly controversial one just now. Many people honestly believe that teachers' salaries ought to be lowered as rapidly and as sharply as profits. As a small-town banker argued, "When we're not making anything, why should they? Let them come down to a board-and-room basis along with the rest of us." Viewed from that angle, his logic is unassailable. Why should they, indeed! The only trouble is that a teacher on a subsistence level is a much less effective worker than one who has money for books, magazines, lectures, concerts, and some travel. It is possible—although most of the authorities on the subject deny it—that a belt-worker may assemble machinery as efficiently on a subsistence wage as on one that will allow him to respect himself because it provides some of the decencies of life. But a school-room is not a factory, and a teacher is not working on a belt. No one can really teach who has not three assets: dependable knowledge in his head and vigor and charm in his personality. All of these assets cost money to acquire, as any

parent knows, and none of them can be retained and developed without the constant expenditure of money. . . .

Until this year's term not many teachers were actually released, but boards everywhere made it a practice not to add the usual number of new teachers and not to replace those who for one reason or another dropped out of the system. For thousands of teachers this meant falling into the hell of unemployment. For the schools it meant a steep increase in what is technically known as the "teaching load," that is, the number of pupils per teacher. Year by year the school population continues to grow. In the last three years the usual rate of growth has accelerated, largely because of the added strain on the high schools. . . . the rate of annual increase in high-school enrolment was last year four times as great as it was in 1927.

There can be no question that in accepting these students and giving them the occupation and pleasant routine upon which youthful morale depends, the schools have done nothing but their plain social duty. . . .

And finally, the board approaches the items most loaded with emotional dynamite: services and curriculums. Here enter for attention the celebrated "fads and frills" about which every critic of the public schools is so deeply exercised. Now a fad or a frill seems to be anything in the school system which was not there thirty years ago. Last year the schools began reluctantly to relinquish them, in other words, to retreat to the educational customs of 1900. This year a veritable ax has descended upon them. Night schools and special schools for physically and mentally handicapped children have been eliminated or drastically curtailed. At the present rate of mortality, kindergartens will soon be a thing of the past. Supervisors are being blown out like chaff in the wind. Health services are being abandoned and visiting teachers becoming a luxury few cities can afford. Many towns have eliminated music entirely, and others have greatly reduced their offerings. Art, home economics, manual training, physical education, trade and vocational classes, and even foreign languages are being eliminated or curtailed.

The battle of the "fads and frills" has been fought on too many fronts to allow of any original comment on it. Those who feel that public funds should be spent only for inculcating the sacred trio of R's upon the masses will get genuine satisfaction from seeing these newer developments in education stripped from the red brick buildings of the land. For those who hold the social view of the function of education the collapse of the "fads and frills" is disheartening. For the schools today are part of a world almost as different from 1900 as 1900 was from 1600. The children entering the first grade this year are to grow up in a world when the work week seems likely to be no longer than twenty-five or thirty hours. Somehow they must be trained to fill that leisure happily and with value to themselves and society. They are to grow up in a world which will allow them no entrance into gainful work until they are adults. It is foolish and worse than foolish to imagine that the three R's can either train them for a life of leisure or fill those long years before they can find a job.

When one considers the crowded buildings, growing shabby for lack of repairs, the dog-eared and insufficient books, the reduced, overloaded teaching forces harassed by acute personal problems, and the elimination of much of the school work which tended to adapt it to the conditions of modern life, one must feel that the schools are caught in an enormous deflationary movement whose outcome cannot now be predicted. . . .

There are also those who argue that America simply bit off a larger enthusiasm for public education than any society can chew. That is to say, they believe that the whole principle of the state making itself responsible for producing an educated citizenry is economically impossible. It is just as well, perhaps, that American education is having to face this blunt statement of a fundamental question in democratic philosophy. But it is silly to think that educators, or editorial writers or economists or taxpayers, or anyone else for that matter, can answer it. The answer depends upon our national future. If we are to bog back into the living standards and folk ways of the pre-industrial era, the social responsibility of the schools will lessen. But in any other future which now seems possible that responsibility must grow continually greater. One thing is as certain as the rising of the sun tomorrow: if we keep our machine civilization with its correlatives of ever-decreasing work hours and ever-increasing leisure, there is no sense in questioning whether a society can afford to keep a large proportion of its population in school. It has to afford it.

For one type of criticism it is hard to find much patience. That is the one which complacently assumes, "It is just the depression which is causing the trouble. When it is over everything will be all right. Meantime the schools will worry through somehow." Strictly speaking, the depression caused none of the social collapse in which we have been smothering during the last two years. It has merely revealed the rotten timbers in the social structure. It did not cause the bank failures—they were caused by a bad banking system which had been bad for years. It is not wrecking the schools. It is only allowing such factors as antiquated tax systems, unjust and mismanaged tax systems, outworn forms of local government, bad banking practices, vague educational aims, pallid teaching methods, and a general feeling that education was becoming too high falutin', to have their natural effect upon the schools.

It may be true, as I recently heard a tax expert insist, that we must wreck our educational system in order to get an intelligent tax system and a decent social order. It may be true. But it is a crying shame that the children have to foot the bill.

THE RECENT SITUATION IN CHICAGO

This section of the September *School Review* contained a somewhat prolonged report and discussion of the action during the summer of the Chicago Board of Education in disemboweling the city's school system. From several sources remote from Chicago have come re-

quests that readers be kept in touch with the outcome of this action of the board and with any favorable or unfavorable turn of events as they affect the local schools. The record has not been kept up in subsequent issues of this journal for two reasons: first, because the school situation in Chicago is now so notorious and so much a matter of general news that it was felt that our readers would have other avenues of access to a knowledge of the developments and, second, because an educational journal which undertakes to be national cannot well devote so much space to the affairs of a single school system. The fact that requests have come in is evidence that the subsequent events are not generally known. Besides, the situation in Chicago is, after all, more or less signal and has its partial analogues in other cities, thereby giving Chicago's educational affairs something of national meaning. Thus, we justify the following brief addition to information and comment in earlier issues.

All petitions made on behalf of friends of the schools to the courts for injunctions to restrain the Chicago Board of Education from carrying out its economy program were denied. In spite of all remonstrances, the board, with only minor compromises, proceeded relentlessly with its wholesale demolition of the educational progress of decades. Kindergartens were reduced and attendance limited to one year for any one pupil. All junior high schools were abolished. Crane Junior College was wiped out. Principals were demoted, and each principal was assigned to two elementary schools. About twelve hundred teachers were dismissed. The action last named is the more astonishing in that the city administration, including the Mayor and the Board of Education, is Democratic and by virtue of this fact might have been expected to manifest some sympathy for the efforts of the Democratic federal administration to increase rather than reduce employment, even though it was ruled in Washington that the schools do not come within the operation of the National Industrial Recovery Act.

Notwithstanding all the crippling blows to the school system included in the former "economy program," the "expert" of the Citizens' Committee on Public Expenditures has recently issued the warning that the school budget for 1934 must be cut ten millions below the figure for 1933. The policies of the board seem to be in

complete harmony with the demands of the so-called "citizens' committee," and a late announcement is that the board is preparing new slashes for the coming year. In issuing its mandate that further drastic cuts be made, the committee is strictly in character as indicated by the last word in its name. It has an eye single to *expenditures*. Not once has it risen in stature to the point of insisting just as vigorously on a shift in the *sources* of public revenue or improvement in the system of taxation. Many a man on the street has made the remark that Chicago could afford the best school system in the world if only the tax system were improved and political jobbery eradicated.

Although one cannot, in epitomizing the occurrences touching the schools in Chicago during the last several months, find anything that represents substantial progress, an occasional dramatic episode comes to view that affords some emotional compensation. One inspiring affair centers in reports of the efforts of a students' organization of Crane Junior College to re-establish that institution as Crane Emergency College, without support from the Chicago Board of Education. This organization has been encouraged to believe that it may be given free use of an office building in the Loop to house the revived unit. It is said that former teachers at Crane have volunteered their services without cost. We may hope devoutly that the efforts will succeed. Someone, in commenting on the prospects of re-establishment, remarked that success in this venture by the students would shame the board. This statement is sheer flattery. The school board's actions during the summer and its ruthlessness in carrying through its program of demolishment in the face of a great wave of public resentment mark the board as being devoid of sensibilities.

Another dramatic episode took place in connection with a great dinner meeting in Chicago of the 1933 Mobilization for Human Needs, attended by civic leaders from all sections of the United States. One of the speakers was Mrs. Franklin D. Roosevelt. Among those present was Mayor Kelly, the man who, by his appointments of members of the Board of Education and by his mandates to the board, was a chief instrumentality in visiting calamity on Chicago's schools. In her address on "Human Needs" Mrs.

Roosevelt, in Mayor Kelly's presence, brought the audience to its feet by her direct statement in support of schools and education. We quote her statements as reported the following day in the *Chicago Herald and Examiner*.

"We often hear this question asked," she said: "Why should character-building agencies like the schools be supported?"

"We know they are considered in some places, especially in a few large cities, as 'frills' and unnecessary, and we know big business men have said we should cut down on our free education.

"I think we should do a better job!

"We now have many young people forced into leisure, whether they want it or not, and we are going to have more leisure time in the future.

"We must give youth an education that will enable them to use this leisure time."

Turning to Newton D. Baker, statesman and social leader, who had just asserted that "unless more schools are built, more jails will be needed," she added:

"I know you are right.

"It will not be only jails that the cities will need. They are going to need more asylums, more hospitals, more poorhouses; in fact, a great many things will happen if we do not give people the interest in life that only education can bring."

SUPERVISORY EXPERIMENTATION

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The introduction of statistics and of experimentation into education found a hearty reception. In one generation we have developed a new science, with numerous journals and tens of thousands of men and women with a training which has given them at least a superficial understanding of the principles and of the common terms of measurement. However, the results, so far as secondary education is concerned, have been meager. Relatively few applications have been made of the findings of hundreds of studies, many of which are truly scientific but many more not wholly respectable when judged by sound criteria. The reasons are numerous.

In the first place, the application of the scientific method to problems of education is still so new that school men have not learned, as members of other professions have long since done, the necessity of making immediate application of all proved findings. Probably they would have learned more rapidly to apply the findings if they were competent to evaluate what is sound and important among the many published studies and were accustomed to doing so. Their common sense has made school men skeptical when they read the long list of "scientific studies" issued annually by professional leaders who are more ambitious than discriminating. Many of the problems are trivial or useless, and too many of the procedures are far from convincing. In no other field are so many "tentative conclusions" published, with no subsequent studies, either by the original authors or by other research students, to prove that the tentative findings are, or are not, sound and worthy of affecting practice.

Another obstacle to practical adoption is that studies made under the artificial conditions of the laboratory do not insure that the same results will be secured in the classroom. Industrial plants have development engineers, whose duty is to try out under practical conditions the findings of theorists and to adapt these findings to mass pro-

duction. Education very much needs development engineers. If promising results from carefully made studies were applied by competent practitioners who are trained in science, the effects of science on educational procedures would be greatly increased. We cannot expect the ordinary classroom teacher unaided to make this practical experimentation in the application of theoretical studies. One or more development engineers in each large school system would greatly increase our knowledge of what effective teaching is.

The best trained scientists in educational experimentation are often the very persons who make this need imperative. One does not have to read far in our scientific journals to discover methods and terms that are far beyond the comprehension of even well-trained and experienced teachers. The stated results, as well as these methods and terms, need to be translated into the language that the practitioner can understand before it is possible for him to attempt application to practice. It seems that the scientists in education are at the present strongly tending to a meticulousness in method which constantly removes them farther from the influence justifying their existence. A few have apparently fallen into the fallacy of thinking that refinements of statistics can compensate for inadequate or unsound original data. Such an assumption still farther removes them from affecting practice.

The profession has come to give almost universal lip service to science in education. One visiting schools hears everywhere that "we are experimenting with" this or that, but in far too few instances are there provisions that the "experiment" be adequately planned, that measurement be made of the results, or that later practice be materially affected. One reason for this situation is that the ordinary schoolmaster feels himself incompetent to use the refined techniques of which he reads. But rough measures are better than none and, in fact, are often entirely adequate for the experiment that has been undertaken. There is no need of a rule graduated to millimeters for measuring land.

One use of experiments which would be considered crude by the laboratory specialist is in supervising instruction. A supervisor may arbitrarily direct a teacher to modify methods, or he may argue that a change will be better; but it is highly important that the teacher

concerned be convinced, that he prove to himself that a novel procedure produces better results than the one in use. In one instance a teacher of Latin, scholarly in his attitude, well trained, and successful in presenting details, so believed in the beneficence of his subject that he was deaf to any suggestion for venturing beyond drill on the details of his subject. When he stated that he expected, among the results of the study of Latin, an improvement in the spelling of English words, his supervisor helped him outline an experiment to measure the results. Two of the beginning classes were taught as usual, English derivatives being adduced as the Latin roots were learned. The other two classes were led to see the similarity in spelling and how the collocation of letters in the root words determines the spelling of the English derivatives, and they then were drilled on the spelling of both Latin and English. After several weeks a spelling test so convinced the instructor of the superiority of the second method that he became one of the best teachers of English form in the entire school.

In another instance a supervisor was disturbed by the fact that some of the oldest teachers habitually reprimanded and threatened the pupils. The matter was discussed in the weekly supervisory meeting, and a considerable group of the teachers argued that only by this method could the pupils be persuaded to do hard work. Representatives of this group agreed to conduct an experiment with pupils in the social studies. Lesson plans were made for three recitations, using jointly-prepared new-type tests of roughly equal difficulty. After the first test had been presented, the teachers looked over the test papers. Teacher A scolded her pupils for doing poorly and made the next assignment with threats of what would happen to those who did not do better. Teacher B expressed himself as pleased with the results, praised the pupils, and encouraged them to surpass their records the next day. After looking over the test papers of the second recitation period, the teachers reversed their procedures, Teacher A praising and encouraging, Teacher B criticizing and threatening. Then the third test followed the third recitation. When the teachers reported that on the second and third tests 86 per cent of the pupils who had been praised and encouraged made better scores as against only 14 per cent of the pupils who had been scolded and threatened,

the supervisor had a sound basis on which to build for improving instruction in this one respect.

Although such experimentation should grow out of problems arising in each school, it is believed that an outline of a number of simple supervisory experiments may prove helpful to principals who are attempting to improve instruction. Some of the following were suggested by my students. It is probable that a supervisor using any one of the experiments outlined will make changes looking either to its refinement or to its adaptation to the problem in hand. Naturally, the best supervisory experiments will grow out of the challenge in any school and will be more or less peculiar to it.

1. Pupils complain that they do not understand the assignments; the teacher contends that the assignments are clearly made and that the fault lies with the pupils. Suggestion: After the assignment have all pupils write what they think they are to do. Pupils will then exchange papers and report differences, which will be adjusted by the teacher. Misunderstanding by any considerable number reveals that the fault is the teacher's. Assurance that all know what they are to do promises better study.

2. A supervisor has been attempting to have pupils understand the values in their assigned work and to adopt the purposes as their own. The teacher thinks this understanding unnecessary, maintaining that pupils are best "disciplined" by doing as they are told. Suggestion: Prepare several lesson plans with extensive new-type tests covering all the material. One class receives assignments and instruction as usual. Another is given, in addition, an explanation of the values to them in the work that they are expected to do. Determine whether the test results reveal any superiority in the work of one group over that of the other.

3. A teacher believes in rigid assignments and mistrusts anything that flavors of pupil responsibility or freedom in planning. Suggestion: Prepare comprehensive new-type tests on a large unit in, say, social studies. Give assignments as usual to one section. In another section make topic assignments to small groups organized with a pupil chairman to prepare extended reports. Make available a carefully chosen list of supplementary materials. At the end of the unit (a) use the prepared test for factual knowledge; (b) have the

pupils in each section report the amount of time spent in all preparation; and (c) have the pupils in the experimental section report which plan they enjoy more.

4. Assignments do not bring the results expected by the teacher. Suggestion: In one section continue to make assignments as usual. For another prepare a written list of key questions which can be answered by study of the material in the textbook and supplementary material. Use any reasonable test at the end of a unit of instruction.

5. Pupils are uninterested and are failing to learn the principles of financial investments. Suggestion: Teach one section as usual, and give a comprehensive test. Have each pupil in another section decide how he would invest an inheritance of five thousand dollars, justifying his decision before the class. Use the same test. Have the pupils in the experimental section follow stock and bond quotations given in the newspapers and report to the class at intervals the changes in values of their investments, giving reasons for the changes so far as these can be ascertained. At the end of the semester repeat the original test with both sections to ascertain the amount of knowledge cumulated and retained.

6. Pupils are resentful at having to study taxation, asserting that they cannot understand the subject. Suggestion: Present the budget of the local municipality to the class, and have committees after directed and independent study propose and defend means of raising the necessary money. Contrast the pupils' interest, amount of time spent on the problem, the resultant knowledge, and the concomitant learnings with the results of a section taught conventionally, or, less objectively, contrast with the recalled results in previous years.

7. Pupils are restless and apparently desirous of more opportunities for expression of their ideas. The teacher is conventional and eager to "cover the ground" in the textbook. Suggestion: Teach one section in the usual way. Propose to the pupils in another section that they may have one period a week to discuss as they please problems pertinent to the subject, providing they prepare a plan for making such discussions worth while. (The supervisor will need to discuss with the teacher what the characteristics of such a plan should be and how it can be made to demand much reference to the textbook and also to supplementary materials. Care must be taken that the

pupils' proposals of topics for discussion are respected.) After a month's trial compare the attainment of the several desired objectives of the subject. Especially note the proportion of the textbook covered by each section.

8. A class of pupils with average and slightly-above-average abilities score low on standard tests. Inquiry reveals poor habits in the most elementary matters of study. The teacher does not appreciate his responsibility and opportunity to improve study habits. Suggestion: Divide the class into two sections of approximately equal ability and with similar achievements on the tests. Have Section A study as usual without direction. Have Section B remain after school for one period each day for a week and study under direction of the teacher. Give a ten-minute test each day to all pupils. During the second week reverse the practice, retaining Section A for study after school. Continue the short tests and compare all results. Have the teacher record all study suggestions that he made and at the end of the first fortnight administer a test prepared by the supervisor to ascertain how many pupils know what suggestions for study have been made, how many assert that they use the suggestions in preparation for recitations in this subject, and how many profess to use them in preparation for recitations in other studies. The results should afford material for further training in how to study. Similarly, tests may be made of the effects of having pupils begin preparation of assignments in class under the teacher's direction, the work to be completed at home, compared with the results of the regular study schedules.

9. A number of pupils habitually study with a radio turned on in the room, asserting that it does not interfere with their work. Suggestion: Appeal to the pupils to try a careful experiment to determine whether the radio makes a difference in the effectiveness of their work. Have the pupils plan the experiment under direction. One group promises to work a given length of time on alternate evenings without radio accompaniment. The other group of pupils, paired with the first according to ability and class standing, studies consistently with the radio. Test daily, and compare the results of the first group on odd-numbered and on even-numbered days and also daily with the results of the second group. Average scores will probably be more significant than those of individual pupils.

10. Pupils are suspected of getting much outside help on required written work. Suggestion: Have some written work done daily in class and similar short papers prepared at home. Carefully mark all papers, chart the results for five days, and present the anonymous results to the class for discussion.

11. Pupils who are absent or who fall behind in their work for other reasons are given inadequate assistance by the teacher in their attempts to catch up with the class. The teacher says she does not have time for coaching; the pupils are afraid to reveal to her all their ignorance. Suggestion: Make case studies of a small number of pupils, say six, who are having trouble with their work. Enlist the co-operation of a few of the best students in the class who are willing to devote one period a day for two weeks to coaching their fellows. So far as possible, permit each needy pupil to select his coach from the posted list. After a fortnight have each coach make a written report of the needs that he has found, what he has done to supply them, and what he thinks remains to be done. Have each coached pupil report what he thinks he has learned. A comparison of these reports with the original case studies should furnish valuable material for discussion in teachers' meetings and for making further supervisory plans.

12. A workbook prepared by the authors of the textbook on business training contains, among other materials, a series of new-type tests on each topic. At the end of the study of each unit the teacher uses these tests, records the mark earned by each pupil, and assigns supplementary study for individual pupils according to their revealed needs. As some pupils use these tests in preparation for the expected examination and others do not, the teacher is skeptical of the results. Suggestion: With one section continue the accustomed plan. With another section use the workbook tests as directions for study and as self-administered measures of achievement. At the completion of the unit give to each section a comprehensive examination prepared by the teacher. A comparison of results should indicate which procedure is better. It should also suggest means of improving both.

13. A teacher of mathematics, excellent in most respects, feels little or no responsibility for pupils who after careful instruction reveal on examination ignorance of details. Suggestion: Diagnostic tests

prepared by the teacher with the aid of the supervisor, following the pattern of similar tests formulated by experts, should be given toward the end of each instructional unit. In one section remedial work should be required in and out of school time. The results of this section's final examination on the unit should be compared with those of the sections taught without the required remedial work. For convincing evidence, experiment with another instructional unit taught by this method to another section, while the original section is taught according to the teacher's conventional method.

14. A teacher, having read in an educational journal that pupils are stimulated to greater activity in study by a knowledge of their progress, is curious to know whether the statement is correct. Suggestion: Give daily tests to three sections in the same subject. Make no report of results to Section A. In Section B graph the results of each day's test on a posted chart. Have each pupil in Section C keep a private chart of his own marks. Determine whether there is any appreciable difference in the average achievement of each section. A study of the effects on individual pupils, especially those of different emotional temperaments, would probably be revealing.

15. A teacher of general science, who uses little or no pupil laboratory work but presents demonstrations himself, often with pupil aid, before the whole class, has required the pupils to write up an account of each demonstration, using a fixed form, for "Science Discovery Books." Both he and the supervisor are skeptical of the value of this requirement and covet the time that it consumes for enrichment readings. Suggestion: In the next large unit, to which four weeks will be devoted, there will be presented sixteen demonstration experiments. The odd-numbered experiments will be written up in the usual manner. The even-numbered ones will not be written up, the time saved to be devoted to carefully selected pertinent readings. At the end of the month the usual tests will be given and the scores compared.

16. There is a difference of opinion regarding the best method to be used in teaching general science. The teacher, who has several sections of approximately equal ability, is open-minded and curious. Suggestion: Teach the topic "levers" to one group, the textbook being supplemented merely by verbal exposition. In a second section

use the textbook and give demonstrations of the uses of the several types of levers. In a third section use the textbook and require of the pupils a series of laboratory experiments. Give the same test to all three sections, and repeat it a month later to discover the differences in retention. Evaluate the results in terms of the amount learned and retained and in terms of the time required for completing the unit with each class.

17. A chemistry teacher who has been reading *Sanderson of Oundle*¹ has a notion that pupils will do much additional and profitable laboratory work if the opportunity is offered and some slight assistance is given. Suggestion: Offer to the class the privilege of using the laboratory after school, the teacher being available to advise concerning each experiment undertaken but not to direct precisely what shall be done. Require the volunteering pupils to keep a full diary of what they attempt and accomplish. Evaluate the results in terms of what is done and the estimated results in changed attitudes toward science. Also keep a record of any changes in marks made on the regular required work in chemistry.

18. A teacher of business practices presents her material skilfully, but she does not feel the necessity of giving frequent drills on the work covered. Suggestion: Select two topics that require approximately two weeks each. Teach one of these topics in the accustomed manner, and at the end give a comprehensive test involving an intelligent use of the information presented. Teach the other topic in the same manner, but, in addition, devote approximately five to seven minutes at the beginning of each period to a rapid cumulative review of all the facts previously taught and at the end of each period have the pupils summarize all the new facts that have been presented. Give a similar comprehensive test on this large unit of work. Comparison should be made not only of the knowledge acquired but also of the ability to apply it. The two tests may well be repeated several weeks after the unit has closed to see whether there is any difference in retention.

19. A teacher of history uses much drill, calling on one pupil at a time, while the rest of the class for the most part is listless and inattentive until a new question brings a new personal danger. Suggest-

¹ *Sanderson of Oundle*. London, England: Chatto & Windus, 1923.

tion: Introduce each day a series of drills on facts requiring response by all members of the class. Measure the results in any way that you please.

20. French classes are given rigid examinations every six weeks, with daily oral drills. The pupils neither dread nor make extra preparation for the latter, but they look on the written examinations as terrible ordeals, cramming for them, becoming emotionally upset, and working poorly for several days afterward. Suggestion: With one section use frequent short written tests, mostly unannounced. Contrast the results of the formal six-week examination of this group with the results of the control sections that have not had the frequent short tests. Note especially the emotional tone of all pupils both immediately before and after the formal examination, securing from the pupils themselves statements of their attitudes.

The types of experiments described may profitably be used to direct teachers' attention to problems needing solution, to furnish objective evidence of a crude sort that may convince a teacher of the superiority of one method of procedure over another, or to stimulate him to make further and more carefully planned experiments which will bring more cogent conclusions. A skilled statistician can find much fault with the experiments suggested, but it is contended that their techniques are adequate for their purposes. As stated earlier, these illustrations are intended to suggest the sort of experimentation that can be profitably used for supervisory purposes rather than to serve as directions for experiments to be carried out exactly as outlined. Any supervisor will find in the problems of his own teachers opportunities for inventing many similar experiments. Warning is given that too ambitious experimentation involving techniques beyond the competency of the teachers or extending over long periods of time should be avoided. It is obvious that a supervisor will need to follow up each experiment and both encourage and help the teacher to modify his practice according to the tentative results found. Most results and the subsequent changes in method can well be discussed in the weekly teachers' meeting. One possible and happy result of the use of such supervisory experiments is that occasionally a teacher with a genuine flair for scientific experimentation may be discovered and launched on activity which will be pleasant to him and profitable to education.

ANNUAL AND SEMIANNUAL PROMOTIONS

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THE GENERAL PROBLEM

The extensive study of the relative merits of various promotion plans presented in the Ninth Yearbook of the Department of Superintendence,¹ while providing interesting reading material, leaves the question of pupil promotions still in doubt. There is uniform agreement that in small schools the annual promotion plan is advisable, but, when larger school systems are considered, such as exist in cities with populations of one hundred thousand and over, the decision is not clear. As many arguments are presented in favor of semiannual promotions as are presented against this plan. The results of a study recently completed by the writer give evidence that the objections against semiannual promotions, even in larger systems, are becoming increasingly pronounced. Not least among these objections is the fact that the semiannual-promotion plan is responsible for greatly unbalanced classes, depending on whether they are organized in September or January. Thus, Arthur W. Ferguson, superintendent of schools in York, Pennsylvania, declares that in the eight years the plan has been in operation in his city, "6,599 beginners have entered the first grade in September, as opposed to 1,766 entering in January."² The situation in Hartford, Connecticut, where the semiannual-promotion plan is used, is comparable; the number of elementary-school children enrolled in the September classes during the school year 1931-32 totaled 11,227, while those enrolled in the January classes numbered only 7,764. In other words, 59.1 per cent

¹ *Five Unifying Factors in American Education*. Ninth Yearbook of the Department of Superintendence. Washington: Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association, 1931.

² Arthur W. Ferguson, "A Report on the Semiannual-Promotion Plan with Special Reference to York, Pennsylvania" (mimeographed). York, Pennsylvania: Arthur W. Ferguson, Superintendent of Schools, February 10, 1931.

of all the elementary-school children were found in the September classes. And this situation is found after the semiannual-promotion system has been in operation in Hartford for more than fifteen years! Even in that length of time the school system has not been able to establish itself on an even keel. On the basis of these figures, 44.6 per cent more pupils are enrolled in the September than in the January classes.

In the high schools in Hartford the situation is even more abnormal. In the school year 1931-32, 4,509 high-school pupils were registered in the September classes and only 2,707 in the January classes. That is, 62.5 per cent of all high-school pupils were found in the September classes and only 37.5 per cent in the January classes. In the words of Superintendent Ferguson of York, "It takes very little imagination to picture the cumulative effect of this difference on the organization of a school system." Incidentally, it shows the extent to which parents are opposed to the semiannual-promotion plan. Is there any doubt that many parents either deliberately refrain from entering their children in January classes or bring pressure to bear to have the children promoted into the September grades if they happen to be January entrants?

Another defect of the semiannual promotions, hitherto overlooked by investigators, is that the January classes constitute a dumping ground into which the misfits of the school system are thrown. This fact makes it extremely difficult, if not altogether impossible, to adjust the curriculum to the needs of the pupils. That the January classes are composed of less capable pupils is clearly shown in evidence from the Hartford high schools which, owing to limitations of space, cannot here be reproduced. Yet these backward pupils, because of the semiannual-promotion system, are the very persons whose high-school studies are interrupted at the end of the first four months by a three months' vacation, during which they tend to forget the associations laboriously established.

The extent to which the discrepancy in the mental ability of the January and the September entrants interferes with curriculum adjustment and homogeneous grouping is demonstrated in Table I. If the pupils entering high school every semester are grouped on the basis of mental tests, one group comprising pupils who have intelli-

gence quotients of 105 and above and the other group those with intelligence quotients of 104 and below, the proportion of pupils in the January classes with higher intelligence quotients over a period of five years is uniformly lower than the corresponding proportion in the September classes. Obviously, the type of instruction offered to the groups who enter in January should be different from that offered

TABLE I
RATIO OF NUMBER OF PUPILS WITH INTELLIGENCE
QUOTIENTS OF 105 OR OVER TO NUMBER OF PUPILS
WITH INTELLIGENCE QUOTIENTS OF LESS THAN
105 IN JANUARY AND SEPTEMBER CLASSES

School Year	January Classes	September Classes
1927-28.....	1.20
1928-29.....	0.80	1.20
1929-30.....	.86	1.20
1930-31.....	.74	1.30
1931-32.....	.76	1.20
1932-33.....	.60	.80

to those who enter in September. Yet the curriculum cannot be changed every six months. Not only do the January groups provide a preponderant number of failures, but, because of the limited mental ability of the pupils, they are deficient in initiative. These groups lack leaders, and even such few leaders as are found among them are so overwhelmed by the large number of sluggards that they fail to stand out in their full strength.

CLAIMS AND COUNTERCLAIMS

The fundamental principle on which the semiannual-promotion device is based is that pupils who fail are required to repeat only a half-year instead of a whole year. If this theory is correct, then the cost of instruction ought to be less under the semiannual-promotion plan than under the annual plan. In this article the facts bearing on this claim will be discussed. At the same time a study of a few of the more pronounced objections raised against the semiannual-promotion plan will be made. The objections usually brought up are as follows:

1. As a rule, textbooks are written to cover the work of the entire

school year, which begins in September and ends in June. The mid-year promotion, however, means that a summer vacation causes a break in the midst of the outlined work. Hence, the January pupils, especially those in the high school, suffer a great injustice because their work is interrupted within a few months after they have started. This break, more than any other factor, may be responsible for the lack of self-reliance and the weakness in scholarship usually found in the January classes.

2. Because of the necessity of reorganizing the school in the middle of the year, the semiannual-promotion plan not only causes a loss of from one to two weeks in instruction time but breaks the personal adjustments between teachers and pupils just when these adjustments have become most efficacious. This severing of adjustments greatly reduces the efficiency of the school.

3. Semiannual promotions increase the cost of instruction, especially in schools in which small classes must be conducted in certain Junior and Senior subjects in order to take care of the January pupils. The labor and the expense of reorganizing the school twice a year also increase the cost of instruction. Pupils must be enrolled, books distributed, schedules made out, and graduations planned twice a year. Clubs, classes, choirs, orchestras, and other units of work—both those in the curriculum and those in the extra-curriculum—must be taken care of twice a year. This doubling of the work involves extra clerical cost and loss of valuable teaching time.

4. Many educators believe that retardation of pupils is invited and encouraged by the fact that the promotion question is raised twice a year. A teacher who finds that a pupil has difficulty in doing work of a certain quality is tempted to allow him to repeat the subject. If, on the other hand, the teacher were responsible for the full year's work, he would be prompted to take greater pains with the pupil and to show more interest in him.

5. Under the semiannual-promotion plan little attention can be given to the individual child. This plan, therefore, creates a lock-step system which defeats the modern tendencies of education, such as homogeneous grouping and the establishment of parallel curriculums. Under the annual-promotion plan, however, the teacher in-

structs the same pupils throughout the year and is, therefore, better able to estimate their ability and to adapt the instruction to their individual needs. He can go far afield in search of new materials of instruction, whereas under the semiannual system he feels that he must cling rigidly to the textbook since teaching becomes merely a question of preparing the pupils to pass the examinations.

6. The idea that semiannual promotions reduce retardation and gain time for pupils is largely imaginary. This gain occurs only during the first few years following the change from the annual to the semiannual plan. After the system has become settled and the work routinized, the amounts of acceleration and retardation are practically the same in both plans.

THE EVIDENCE

Loss owing to interruption by semiannual promotion.—One of the faults of the semiannual-promotion plan is that it works injury on the very pupils for whose benefit it has been introduced, the mentally slow. For it is the January entrants whose high-school studies are interrupted at the end of the first four months by a long summer vacation, during which they suffer a considerable loss of the learning associations formed during a single semester. When these pupils return in the following September, they must spend a disproportionate amount of time in review, or, if they are to cover the ground of the second term, they start with a weak foundation and fail in larger numbers at the end of that term. This result is precisely what a study of the examination marks reveals, as is brought out in Table II. In those subjects in which the upper-Freshman part is dependent on the lower-Freshman material studied, such as algebra, Latin, French, business, and to a lesser extent, English, the pupils who enter in January and pass the first part in June fail in larger numbers at the end of the second semester than those who enter in September, pass the first part in January, and go on with the second part without any lapse of time. It will be noticed that subjects like shop work, mechanical drawing, or ancient history, in which the second parts are not so largely dependent on the first as in the other subjects listed, do not uniformly show greater percentages of failures among the January pupils. Lest it be claimed that the January pupils,

being mentally inferior to those who enter in September, would naturally be expected to contribute a larger percentage of failures, it should be borne in mind that the figures in this table take into account only pupils who successfully passed the work of the first semester and thus began the work of the second semester on an equal basis with the September pupils. The only difference between the two groups is the break in the middle of the work imposed on the Janu-

TABLE II
AVERAGE PERCENTAGES OF PUPILS FAILING IN
UPPER-FRESHMAN SUBJECTS

Subject	January Classes (Re- sults Based on Six Semesters)	September Classes (Re- sults Based on Five Semesters)*
Algebra II.....	21.7	17.5
Ancient History II.....	3.2	5.8
Business II.....	13.4	10.8
Civics II.....	11.2	12.4
English II.....	8.8	6.2
French II.....	17.5	14.9
General Science II.....	7.1	10.3
Latin II.....	19.5	16.1
Mechanical Drawing II.....	15.0	19.5
Shop Work II.....	1.2	4.3

* These figures were compiled in the spring of 1932—hence the omission of the sixth semester.

ary pupils by the summer vacation. This finding applies to upper-classmen as well as to Freshmen.

With regard to the charge that the semiannual-promotion plan breaks up the pupil-teacher adjustment at just about the time it has been perfected, thereby breaking up the class routine and greatly lowering the efficiency of pupils and teachers, data on the number of pupils making the honor list, which were gathered and published elsewhere by the writer,¹ clearly show that there is a marked break in the adjustment between teachers and pupils and thus a lowering in the efficiency of the school. The study, covering the school years 1926-27 to 1932-33, showed that the percentages of the enrolled pu-

¹ Gustave A. Feingold, "Midyear Promotions and School Efficiency," *School and Society*, XXXVII (May 20, 1933), 662-64.

pils making the honor list each year steadily increased from the first to the fourth marking periods but declined sharply in the fifth period (the period following the midyear reorganization). In general, it may be said that school vacations extending over a period of one week reduce the efficiency by approximately 5 per cent. Semiannual promotions, however, by necessitating a suspension of instruction for one week and by disrupting and disorganizing classes, are responsible for reducing the school efficiency by approximately 30 per cent. The injury done to the brilliant pupils from interchanging teachers in the middle of the year unquestionably redounds with even greater injury to the average and the slower pupils, those whose success largely depends on the intelligent and sympathetic understanding and guidance of the teacher.

Normalizing class size by annual promotion.—A claim in favor of the annual-promotion plan is that under this scheme the school can be run more economically. The expenses of double scheduling, additional clerical work, and two graduations a year are eliminated, and, in addition, the annual plan requires fewer teachers and fewer rooms. Every school executive who is operating on the semiannual-promotion plan is well aware of this fact, but two illustrations will prove the point.

1. In a certain high school organized on the semiannual plan, thirty-four pupils were taking the first half-year of French and thirty-four were taking the second half-year's work in the same subject. Each of these groups was too large for a single class. Consequently, it was necessary to break up each group into two classes, or a total of four classes. Under the annual-promotion plan the sixty-eight pupils could very conveniently have been grouped into three classes of approximately twenty-three pupils each, at a saving of one-fifth of the annual salary of a teacher.

2. Forty-one pupils divided into two classes were enrolled in the first half-year's work of a certain high-school subject. In the second half-year's work of the same subject, seventy-four pupils were enrolled in three classes. If the work had been conducted on the annual-promotion basis, these 115 pupils could have been divided into four classes of approximately 28 pupils each, at a saving of one-fifth of the cost of instruction.

When investigating the class organization of a certain high school operating on the semiannual-promotion plan, the enrolment being two thousand, the writer found that, of forty existing classes in ten different subjects, ten classes could have been eliminated under the annual-promotion plan, with a saving of the salaries of two full-time teachers, or approximately \$5,400. For the entire high-school system of the city in which this particular school is located, the consolidation of classes which would be made possible by the elimination of semiannual promotions would bring about an annual saving of approximately \$25,800 in a budget of \$1,000,000.

Relation to the cost of instruction.—We turn next to the examination of the claim that the semiannual-promotion plan reduces the expense of instruction because to have a pupil repeat a half-year costs only half as much as to have him repeat a full year. There is a plausibility in this argument with which, to the writer's surprise, the proponents of the semiannual-promotion plan have often been able to confound the rest of those who are interested in the subject. The assumption on which this argument is based is that, if an equal number of pupils fail under either plan, those under the annual plan fail once a year and must repeat the entire year, while those under the semiannual plan also fail once during the year and must repeat only a half-year. Those who advance this claim overlook the fact that under the semiannual plan the failures occur twice a year and that the percentage of failures, whatever it may be, continues the same throughout the entire school year. The case may be illustrated as follows: We may drop one hundred straws into a stream and let them float for a mile. These would represent the failures under the annual-promotion system. On the other hand, we may drop a hundred straws into the stream and let them float for a half-mile, then remove these straws and throw in another hundred to float for the other half-mile. These straws would represent the condition under the semiannual plan. The same number of straws will be found floating in the stream at any point no matter whether they are thrown in all at once or in two lots.

Not only is this situation actually found, but the fact of the matter is that there are more failures under the semiannual-promotion plan than under the annual plan. Theory would call for this result,

and facts support the theory. It is obvious that on the annual basis a pupil who does failing work during the first semester may improve sufficiently during the second semester to overcome the first failure and thus not be obliged to repeat any of the work. Again, a pupil who does work of a failing grade during the second semester may have done sufficiently well during the first semester to be able to pass on the average mark of both terms. Under the semiannual-promotion plan he would have no alternative; having failed, he must repeat a semester's work. On the other hand, under the annual-promotion plan a pupil may pass the work of one semester and fail that of the other so badly that the average of the two semesters' work will cause him to fail for the entire year. However, an examination of this situation made by the writer disclosed that, of eighty-five cases taken at random from three different classes, fifty-three pupils who had failed in one semester passed with a sufficiently high mark in the other to bring the work for the entire year, on the average of the two marks, to a passing grade. Only thirty-two of these eighty-five pupils, though passing the work of one semester, failed so badly during the other that they would have been obliged to repeat the work of the entire year. Under the annual-promotion plan this situation would cause a net loss of thirty-two semester-subjects, whereas under the semiannual-promotion plan there was a repetition of eighty-five subjects. In other words, the number of repeaters under the semiannual-promotion device was 62 per cent greater than the number under the annual scheme. If the greatest good for the greatest number is the criterion, the injustice resulting from the semiannual-promotion plan was very serious. For whereas under the annual plan only thirty-two pupils would have failed, under the semiannual scheme fifty-three pupils were obliged to lose a half-year though their work in the other half-year was sufficiently good to carry them along with their class.

Let us turn to another set of facts. The Hartford Public High School operated on the annual-promotion basis until 1916, when it adopted the semiannual plan, which is still in use. By tabulating the credits earned by the pupils in 1915-16 and those earned in 1931-32 for the various subjects and dividing by the possible number of credits that could have been earned, the writer obtained the percent-

age of failures for each of the subjects given in Table III. With the exception of Latin and possibly French, the percentages of failures under the semiannual-promotion plan were uniformly larger than those under the annual plan. The discrepancy in Latin may easily be explained by the fact that the percentage of high-school pupils who take Latin has decreased from 35-40 per cent in 1916 to not more than 25 per cent in 1931-32. At the later date only the highly selected college-preparatory pupils studied Latin. The average per-

TABLE III
PERCENTAGES OF SUBJECT FAILURES IN THE SAME
SCHOOL WHEN OPERATED ON THE ANNUAL- AND
SEMIANNUAL-PROMOTION PLANS

Subject	Annual Plan 1915-16	Semi- annual Plan 1931-32
Algebra.....	14.1	19.0
Ancient history.....	5.7	13.2
Bookkeeping.....	4.9	11.8
English.....	8.3	9.3
French.....	22.6	22.4
General science.....	11.8	17.0
Latin.....	19.5	16.8
Average.....	12.0	14.8

centage of failures under the annual-promotion plan was 12.0, whereas under the semiannual-promotion plan it was 14.8. In other words, there were 23 per cent more failures under the semiannual scheme than under the annual-promotion plan. In the school system from which these figures were gathered, the writer found that the cost of reteaching the pupils whose failure was due primarily to the semiannual-promotion plan was \$19,600 greater than it would have been if the high schools had operated on the annual plan. When this amount is added to the sum which could be saved by consolidating the small classes, the total saving is \$45,400. This amount in a budget of \$1,000,000 is a considerable item these days.

The argument might be made that the failures were greater in 1931-32 than in 1915-16, not because the pupils were being taught under the semiannual-promotion system, but because they were

mentally inferior to those who attended high school seventeen years ago. One who is familiar with the situation, however, will quickly reply that the curriculum in the later year was much easier and much more simplified than the curriculum in 1915-16. This statement holds for every subject listed in Table III with the possible exception of ancient history. In algebra, Latin, and French, for instance, the present-day textbooks are considerably easier and cover much less ground than the textbooks of 1915-16. Furthermore, the marking scheme now used is easier than that in use seventeen years ago. At that time the examination mark was counted as half of the final mark, while in 1931-32 the examination mark constituted only one-third of the final mark. An investigation of more than fifty thousand recitation and examination marks revealed to the writer that the examination mark is from ten to fifteen points lower than the recitation mark.

The comparative effect on the final mark of the weighting given the examination mark may be illustrated by the following case: If the final passing mark is 60 and a pupil receives a daily recitation mark of 65 and only 50 in the term examination, the average of these two marks under the system prevailing in 1915-16 would be 57.5 and the pupil would fail. Under the system of marking now in use in the Hartford high schools, the average of the two marks would be 60.0 and the pupil would pass. An actual random count of 1,886 passing marks earned by Freshmen in the school year 1931-32 disclosed that 50, or 2.7 per cent, of the marks would have been below passing if the system employed in 1915-16 had been in use in 1931-32. Therefore, it is perfectly proper to add this 2.7 per cent to the 14.8 per cent of failures which actually occurred. The percentage of failures, then, under the semiannual system is 17.5 compared with 12.0 under the annual-promotion plan, or an excess of 45.8 per cent failures which may be attributed to the promotion plan inaugurated primarily to reduce failures.

CONCLUSIONS

1. Semiannual promotions greatly unbalance the classes, thereby making it difficult, if not impossible, to establish a systematized curriculum and run the school on an even keel.

2. Semiannual promotions have brought about an unbalancing of mental ability of the January and the September classes, the former constituting the dumping ground into which the misfits are thrown throughout the elementary-school grades. This practice further unbalances the type of instruction given to the pupils who enter high school twice a year.

3. Because their study is interrupted by a long summer vacation within a few months after the start of the work, the January pupils graduate with a weaker foundation than do the September pupils. ?

4. The breaking of the personal adjustments between teachers and pupils occasioned by the reorganization of the school in January lowers the scholarship of the pupils by approximately 30 per cent.

5. The necessity of operating small classes in order to provide the same educational opportunities for the January as for the September pupils increases the cost of instruction under the semiannual system by 2.58 per cent of the annual budget over the cost under the annual plan.

6. Because the question of promotion is brought up twice a year, approximately 23 per cent more pupils are in the failing group during every term under the semiannual-promotion plan than under the annual plan. Thus, the percentage which the cost of high-school instruction is of the annual budget is increased another 2 per cent. The total cost of instruction under the semiannual-promotion plan, then, consumes 4.5 per cent more of the annual budget than the cost under the annual scheme.

7. For these and similar reasons some of the foremost educators and school administrators in the country now believe that, with ability grouping, trial promotions, and parallel curriculums, the saving of time—which is the purpose of semiannual promotions—not only is unnecessary but is indeed defeated by the handicaps created by the semiannual-promotion system.

EXTRA-CURRICULUM ACTIVITIES IN HIGH SCHOOLS AND INTERMEDIATE SCHOOLS IN DETROIT

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Pupil activities of all sorts are increasingly looked on as a means of providing opportunity for the development of broad educational values. To find to what extent Detroit's schools are attempting to meet the needs of adolescents, the Department of Curriculum Research made a survey of the status of extra-curriculum activities. A questionnaire was sent to the nineteen high schools and the twenty intermediate (junior high) schools in the city.

No effort was made in this study to check duplications of activity among pupils or teacher sponsors. The limitations made on membership in clubs in some instances cared for this duplication in a slight degree, but accurate information on individual memberships could be obtained only through a definite system of records in each school.

Information on the following questions was secured: (1) What types of extra-curriculum activities exist in secondary schools in Detroit? (2) How many of the pupils are interested in extra-curriculum activities? (3) Which activities engage the largest number of pupils? (4) Is there a faculty sponsor for each activity? If so, what subject is taught by the sponsor? (5) When and how often are meetings held? (6) Are dues collected? If so, how much is paid, how frequently, and to whom? (7) Are limitations placed on participation in activities? If so, to what extent? (8) Is scholastic credit allowed for extra-curriculum activities? If so, to what extent? (9) How is each activity managed?

CLASSIFICATION OF DATA

The extra-curriculum activities were classified according to an adaptation of Terry's "Important Types of Student Organizations."¹

¹ Paul W. Terry, *Supervising Extra-Curricular Activities*, pp. 161-271. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1930.

Three main divisions, Groups A, B, and C, were made. Group A included those activities which are outgrowths of pupil participation in school government, such as councils, house groups, assemblies, and honor societies. Group B included activities which assist the school community through service. Groups A and B represent the long established types of pupil activities. Group C included the activities which spring from the personal interests of pupils. These represent the most recent development in the activity program. Among these were the national clubs, such as Boy Scouts, Girl Scouts, Girl Reserves, Camp Fire Girls, and Hi-Y; the handicraft clubs of all sorts; clubs providing practice to develop added skill; activities closely allied with classroom interests; and activities which seemed to satisfy only the social urge.

In further explanation of the classification of activities, it may be said that the purpose, the limitations imposed, and the sponsorship were used as guides in assigning an activity to a group, as well as the actual procedure of the activity. For example, an activity known as "The Dance Club," in which membership was dependent on tryouts or other evidences of skill, the main interest of which was in folk dancing, and which was sponsored by a teacher of health education, was classified as an athletic interest (Group B), since from it representative teams might be developed. An activity which had a similar name, "The Dancing Club," but which was open to all interested, was occupied with social dancing, and was sponsored by a teacher of an academic subject, was classified as a leisure interest (Group C).

EXTENT OF PARTICIPATION

Seventy-five activities were listed in Group A, as shown in Table I, in which a total of 3,174 boys and 2,770 girls participated. Thirty-two of these activities were found in the high schools and forty-three in the intermediate schools. The total number of activities listed was 759, of which 300 were found in the high schools and 459 in the intermediate schools. More girls than boys were interested in activities, but the proportions were not widely different from the proportions of boys and girls enrolled in the high schools and the intermediate schools. The percentage of girls of high-school age participating in activities was 8.8 greater than the corresponding percentage of

high-school boys. This difference may be explained by the probability that more boys than girls were employed after school. It may be also that the programs had greater appeal for girls than for boys of high-school age.

TABLE I

NUMBER OF EXTRA-CURRICULUM ACTIVITIES OF THREE TYPES CARRIED ON IN DETROIT HIGH SCHOOLS AND INTERMEDIATE SCHOOLS AND NUMBER OF BOYS AND GIRLS PARTICIPATING IN EACH GROUP

GROUP	NUMBER OF ACTIVITIES	NUMBER OF PARTICIPANTS	
		Boys	Girls
Group A—Government and social control:			
High schools.....	32	2,209	2,100
Intermediate schools.....	43	965	670
Total.....	75	3,174	2,770
Group B—Major voluntary social service:			
High schools.....	112	1,211	2,451
Intermediate schools.....	173	2,427	3,281
Total.....	285	3,638	5,732
Group C—Minor voluntary personal interests:			
High schools.....	156	1,610	2,930
Intermediate schools.....	243	3,782	3,719
Total.....	399	5,392	6,649
All groups:			
High schools.....	300	5,030	7,481
Intermediate schools.....	459	7,174	7,670
Total.....	759	12,204	15,151

The largest number of activities of any one type in Group B fell under forensics. In this group were classified dramatics, literary societies, and language interests. This section was probably the least selective of all the activities in Group B. Participation in such activities as publications, athletics, and music, for example, were all dependent, to a considerable extent, on special abilities which might tend to prevent wider participation in such interests. The participation of boys and girls in public speaking, dramatics, literature, and

foreign languages showed the greatest membership of all activities in Group B. The numbers of boys and girls engaged in each of these activities is shown in Table II. The tastes of boys and girls were strongly indicated in the case of these activities. The boys were apparently more interested in debating and discussion than were the

TABLE II
SUMMARY OF THE PARTICIPATION OF BOYS AND GIRLS IN
THOSE ACTIVITIES IN GROUP B (MAJOR VOLUNTARY
SOCIAL SERVICE) WITH LARGEST MEMBERSHIP

ACTIVITY	NUMBER OF ACTIVITIES	NUMBER OF PARTICIPANTS	
		Boys	Girls
Public speaking:			
High schools.....	22	237	212
Intermediate schools.....	10	110	124
Total.....	32	347	336
Dramatics:			
High schools.....	12	73	324
Intermediate schools.....	14	280	343
Total.....	26	353	667
Literature:			
High schools.....	15	73	424
Intermediate schools.....	21	176	406
Total.....	36	249	830
Foreign language:			
High schools.....	21	193	518
Intermediate schools.....	11	130	158
Total.....	32	323	676

girls. The boys were far outnumbered by the girls in the dramatic, literary, and foreign-language interests shown.

Special interests and hobbies were concentrated in Group C. Here were the activities in which the aeroplane-builders, artists, scientists, nature-lovers, and the like had opportunities to express themselves. By far the largest number of activities were found in Group C, especially in the case of the intermediate schools.

INTERESTS

A distribution of the various types of pupil interests as expressed in leisure and hobby activities is shown in Table III. A total of 399 activities fell in the special-interest division (Group C). The activities were grouped about the interests listed. For example, seventy-

TABLE III

TYPES OF ACTIVITIES FOUND IN GROUP C (MINOR VOLUNTARY PERSONAL INTERESTS) AND NUMBER OF ACTIVITIES OF EACH TYPE IN HIGH SCHOOLS AND INTERMEDIATE SCHOOLS OF DETROIT

TYPE OF ACTIVITY	NUMBER OF ACTIVITIES		
	High Schools	Intermediate Schools	Total
National organizations ("Y," Scouts, etc.)	34	37	71
Subject extensions.....	26	35	61
Construction of aeroplanes, boats, metal and wood objects, etc.....	8	43	51
Social activities.....	26	17	43
Sketching, painting, modeling, etc.....	14	16	30
Vocational and home interests.....	9	19	28
Science.....	9	12	21
Recreation.....	6	12	18
Service.....	6	7	13
Collecting stamps, coins, etc.....	2	11	13
Games (bridge, chess, checkers, etc.).....	2	10	12
Nature-study.....	3	7	10
Personality improvement.....	4	4	8
Travel.....	3	4	7
Dancing (social).....	1	5	6
Photography.....	3	1	4
Music (harmonica).....	0	3	3
Total.....	156	243	399

one groups were interested in national organizations, thirty-four in the high schools and thirty-seven in the intermediate schools. The interest of the intermediate-school pupils in the shop work was evident. The three R's were not neglected; in many instances, apparently, pupils associated themselves with particular activities because they wished closer contacts with their favorite academic subjects.

SPONSORSHIP

A distribution, according to the subjects taught, of the teachers sponsoring activities is shown in Table IV. Of the total of 796 sponsors, 323 were teaching in high schools and 473 in the intermedi-

TABLE IV
DISTRIBUTION, ACCORDING TO SUBJECTS TAUGHT, OF TEACHERS
SPONSORING EXTRA-CURRICULUM ACTIVITIES IN DETROIT
HIGH SCHOOLS AND INTERMEDIATE SCHOOLS

SUBJECT TAUGHT	NUMBER OF TEACHERS		
	High Schools	Intermediate Schools	Total
Administration.....	25	14	39
Art.....	13	15	28
Auditorium.....	3	12	15
Biology.....	12	0	12
Chemistry.....	15	0	15
Commercial (business science).....	24	17	41
Dramatics.....	0	1	1
English.....	52	64	116
Foreign language:			
French.....	5	4	9
German.....	5	0	5
Latin.....	11	4	15
Spanish.....	6	0	6
General language.....	0	3	3
General science.....	7	29	36
Geography.....	0	3	3
Health education (one nurse).....	23	42	65
Home economics.....	23	19	42
Library.....	8	15	23
Mathematics.....	29	52	81
Mechanical drawing.....	7	9	16
Music.....	13	44	57
Physics.....	2	0	2
R.O.T.C.....	1	0	1
Shop.....	7	54	61
Sight saving.....	0	1	1
Social science.....	29	60	89
Special room.....	2	0	2
No information given.....	1	11	12
Total.....	323	473	796

ate schools. A total of 39 administrators, of whom 25 were in the high schools and 14 in the intermediate schools, sponsored activities. The activities classified in Group A (government and social control) were largely sponsored by faculty members holding administrative

positions. The teachers of special subjects tended to sponsor activities along the lines of their interests. It would appear that the teachers of English, social science, and mathematics had broad contacts in the matter of pupil interests. Sometimes two or even three teachers sponsored the same activities. No doubt, this overlapping accounts for the fact that the number of sponsors (796) was larger than the number of activities (759).

MEETINGS

Wednesday was the most popular day for meetings. One hundred and ninety-three groups held their meetings on that day. Thursday was second with 164 meetings. The number of meetings held on Friday was only slightly smaller than the number held on Monday or Tuesday. Friday was second in popularity in the intermediate schools. Wednesday and Thursday were the most popular days for meetings in the high schools. The "Junior Players," an intermediate-school organization, was the only activity meeting on Saturday.

Meetings were most commonly held every week or every two weeks. The number of activities meeting weekly totaled 394; the number meeting bi-weekly, 248. The latter interval was apparently preferred in the high schools. The activities with daily responsibilities (27) were those connected with cafeteria, patrols (traffic and corridor), service organizations, and press work. Those activities which met on call (46) or only once or twice a semester were the councils, assemblies, leagues, and girls' athletic associations. The large musical organizations met frequently. When special projects were under way, extra preparation was also required. In some schools all club activities took place at the same period on the same day. This arrangement was an effective limitation on the excessively ambitious pupil who might be tempted to participate in too many interests.

The hours of 2:00 and 3:00 P.M. (107 and 47 meetings, respectively) and 11:00 A.M. (54 meetings) were the most popular hours for meetings in high schools. In the intermediate schools 3:00 and 2:00 P.M. (219 and 68 meetings, respectively) and 9:00 A.M. (40 meetings) were the hours most frequently used.

DUES

Dues were required in only 170 activities of the 300 activities in high schools. In the intermediate schools only 74 of the 459 activities required dues. The range of dues was from one cent a week to two dollars a semester. The higher amounts represented special activities, sometimes Senior-class expenses or "Y" work. In the intermediate schools the activities requiring dues were decidedly in the minority. Special assessments were made in 25 high-school and 4 intermediate-school activities, but in the high schools dues were paid in the main on a semester basis (111 cases). In the intermediate schools dues were most frequently paid on a monthly basis (24 cases). In the latter schools bi-weekly dues were paid in 19 instances, and dues were paid once a semester in 14 cases. Dues which were paid by special assessment usually covered materials used by the pupil or the expenses of special social events. Pupil treasurers were not required to assume sole responsibility for handling funds. In the high schools the club treasurer collected the dues and turned the money over to the school bookkeeper. In the intermediate schools the club treasurer and the teacher-sponsor cared for the funds.

LIMITATIONS

No limitations on membership were made in 116 of the high-school activities and in 175 of the intermediate-school activities. Of the remainder, restrictions varied from membership in not more than one activity to membership in not more than three. In 52 activities membership was open only to persons interested in particular subjects. Of these, 19 were in the high schools and 33 in the intermediate schools. Scholarship requirements were definitely stated in 73 instances. Two high-school activities required marks of A for membership; 18, marks of B; 19, marks of at least C. In three activities marks of D disqualified a pupil for membership. The limitations in the intermediate schools were similar.

CREDITS

Regular credit was allowed for the work in nineteen high-school activities. Five schools allowed five hours for journalism, and one gave the same amount of credit for work in the school band. Other

credits varied from one hour to four, with two and one-half the most frequent allowance. In the intermediate schools one hour of credit was allowed in four activities. There seemed to be a tendency for schools to allow credit only for activities requiring considerable time and preparation on the part of the pupil.

MANAGEMENT

Of the total of 759 activities, 602 were managed by pupil officers under teacher guidance. Two hundred and eighty-three of these were in the high schools and 319 in the intermediate schools. In the great majority of cases pupils were receiving training in the acceptance of responsibility through participation in directing the activities both in the high schools and in the intermediate schools.

CONCLUSIONS

A study of the findings leads to the following conclusions.

1. The secondary schools in Detroit through their activity programs are providing for the wholesome development of such adolescent characteristics as gregariousness, the migratory instinct, curiosity, imitation, loyalty, sympathy, desire for approval, and love of mastery.
2. Responsibility for the management of pupils' interests by the pupils themselves is being broadly developed.
3. The limitations placed on membership, in cases in which such measures are followed, are not narrowly restrictive.
4. Dues, when used, are non-prohibitive in amount and are jointly managed, so that pupil treasurers do not keep funds in their possession for any great length of time.
5. Credits for extra-curriculum activities are given, largely, for the types of activities which require considerable time and skill in performance.
6. The interest of teachers in extra-curriculum activities is manifested in the large number of teachers sponsoring the programs.
7. The breadth of the activity programs is indicative of the degree to which such interests are becoming an integral part of the school organization.

PRACTICES DISTINCTIVE OF COMPREHENSIVELY ORGANIZED SECONDARY SCHOOLS

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PURPOSE

This article describes the development and the content of two standardized check lists for the organization of secondary schools, one for junior high school grades and one for senior high school grades.¹ The check lists are composed of 134 and 151 practices, respectively, which have been found to discriminate between a group of very comprehensively organized schools and a group of extremely non-comprehensively organized schools. The check lists are intended to be used to ascertain how many and which of these distinguishing practices in school organization are employed by any given secondary school.

SCOPE OF THE CHECK LISTS

The organization of the individual school, as used in this investigation, is composed of agencies and practices which constitute the set-up of the school for the performance of its functions as a school. The check lists were built around the functions of junior and senior high schools as expressed by educational leaders and practical school administrators. The check lists were revised in the light of the suggestions of seven specialists in secondary education.

The check lists include practices in school organization classified under eight major phases: admission and promotion, organization of instruction, program of studies, articulation, teaching staff, extra-curriculum, guidance, and supervision. The section "Admission and Promotion" is devoted to factors taken into account in admitting pupils to the junior and the senior high school grades, respectively, and to factors considered in promoting pupils from grade to grade.

¹ Orie I. Frederick, *Two Standardized Check Lists for the Organization of Secondary Schools*. Ann Arbor, Michigan: Ann Arbor Press, 1933. Pp. 64.

"Organization of Instruction" covers departmentalization, size of classes, length of school sessions, uses of standardized tests, and special provisions for individual differences of pupils. "Program of Studies" deals only with required and elective subject fields in each secondary-school grade. Content of subjects is not included. "Articulation" pertains to the articulation of junior high school grades with elementary-school and senior high school grades. Articulation is considered with respect to subject matter, methods of teaching, extra-curriculum, and guidance. "Teaching Staff" pertains to the experience and the training of the teachers. "Extra-Curriculum" comprehends various types of extra-curriculum activities and the policies of the school with reference to these activities. "Guidance" includes the personnel and the agencies of guidance. Finally, "Supervision" is concerned with agencies and methods of supervision.

SELECTION OF DISCRIMINATING ITEMS
FOR THE CHECK LISTS

The present investigation is an extension of the reorganization project of the National Survey of Secondary Education¹ but not a part of it. In connection with that project, replies to a long inquiry form were received and were scored on each of the major phases of organization represented in the inquiry form. In the present investigation these scores for the major phases of organization were added to obtain a total score for each school studied. The types of schools used were three-year junior high schools, three-year senior high schools, three-three junior-senior high schools, and six-year undivided high schools, all parts of twelve-grade systems. These schools were of all sizes and were located in all parts of the United States. From the 249 schools with junior high school grades, the 25 schools having the highest total scores and the 25 schools having the lowest total scores were compared. Likewise, from the 209 schools having senior high school grades, the 25 most comprehensively organized and the 25 least comprehensively organized schools were compared.

In the check lists for junior and senior high school grades, respectively, were included only practices in school organization which

¹ Francis T. Spaulding, O. I. Frederick, and Leonard V. Koos, *The Reorganization of Secondary Education*. National Survey of Secondary Education Monograph No. 5. United States Office of Education Bulletin No. 17, 1932.

were employed by at least five more schools in the most comprehensively organized group of twenty-five schools than in the least comprehensively organized group of twenty-five schools. The practices in each check list were employed, on the average, by three times as many schools in the most comprehensively organized group of schools as in the least comprehensively organized group of schools.

Since the check lists contain only discriminating items, no claim is made that all important practices in school organization are included. Which of the excluded practices are important and which are not is, however, not easy to determine except on the basis of opinion. Moreover, for purposes of measurement, there appears to be little warrant for including practices which afford little or no discrimination between groups of schools.

ILLUSTRATIVE SECTIONS OF THE CHECK LIST FOR
THE ORGANIZATION OF JUNIOR
HIGH SCHOOL GRADES¹

I. ADMISSION AND PROMOTION

A. Admission of pupils to the first junior high school grade. Check (X) each item which is taken into definite account either in determining regular admissions or in cases of certain pupils.

	Least Organ- ized Schools	Most Organ- ized Schools
() 1. Standardized achievement test results	2	18
() 2. Standardized intelligence test results	2	17
() 3. Degree of social maturity	4	20
() 4. Chronological age or degree of physical maturity	9	21
() 5. Estimate of teachers of the preceding grade as to the pupils' ability to do the work of the first junior high school grade	12	19

B. Frequency and plan of promotion of pupils in junior high school grades. Check (X) each practice employed.

() 1. Promotion whenever it seems justified, whether the general plan is annual or semiannual promotion	0	20
() 2. Subject promotion to at least some extent	14	21

¹ The figure in the left-hand column after each item indicates the number of schools in the group of twenty-five least comprehensively organized schools which employ the practice; the figure in the right-hand column, the number of schools in the group of twenty-five most comprehensively organized schools which employ the practice.

C. Bases of promotion in junior high school grades. Check (X) each item which is taken into account in determining a pupil's readiness for promotion, either regularly or in cases of certain pupils.

	Least Organ- ized Sch.ols	Most Organ- ized Schools
() 1. Standardized achievement test results.....	2	18
() 2. Standardized intelligence test results.....	1	17
() 3. Degree of social maturity.....	2	20
() 4. Chronological age or degree of physical maturity.....	7	20
() 5. Teachers' estimates of ability to do the work of the next grade.....	12	23
() 6. Teachers' estimates of industry, application, or effort...	7	17

II. ORGANIZATION OF INSTRUCTION

A. Departmentalization, size of classes, and length of sessions. Check (X) each item which applies for junior high school grades.

() 1. The usual number of different subject fields ¹ taught by a teacher is one.....	3	17
() 2. The usual class in recitation subjects enrolls more than 20 pupils.....	16	25
() 3. The school year, exclusive of holidays and vacations, is more than 180 days.....	1	16
() 4. The usual length of class periods, exclusive of time for passing of classes, is more than 40 minutes.....	13	23

B. Use of standardized tests of intelligence in junior high school grades. Check (X) each purpose for which standardized intelligence tests are employed either alone or in connection with other measures.

() 1. For assigning pupils to grade or class sections.....	3	24
() 2. For assigning pupils to specialized subjects or curricu- lums.....	0	18
() 3. For research and experimentation.....	3	19
() 4. For evaluation of teaching efficiency.....	5	17
() 5. For diagnosis of difficulties in learning.....	8	19

C. Use of standardized tests of achievement in junior high school grades. Check (X) each purpose for which standardized achievement tests are employed, either alone or in connection with other measures.

¹ Consider the subject fields to be: English, social studies, mathematics, science, foreign language, fine arts, music, business training (commerce), home economics, industrial arts, agriculture, and physical training.

	Least Organ- ized Schools	Most Organ- ized Schools
() 1. For assigning pupils to grade or class sections.....	2	21
() 2. For assigning pupils to specialized subjects or curricu- lums.....	0	15
() 3. For research and experimentation.....	3	20
() 4. For evaluation of teaching efficiency.....	9	20
() 5. For diagnosis of difficulties in learning.....	7	19
D. Special features of organization in junior high school grades. Check (X) each special provision for individual differences of pu- pils which is employed.		
() 1. Homogeneous or ability grouping.....	7	24
() 2. Scientific study of problem cases.....	2	18
() 3. One or more special techniques for the individualization of instruction (for example, differentiated assignments, contract plan, etc.).....	8	23
() 4. One or more special techniques for the socialization of instruction (for example, socialized recitation, group- project method, etc.).....	15	24
() 5. Grouping according to specialized curriculums.....	4	14
() 6. Special provisions for slow pupils (for example, oppor- tunity or remedial classes, or individual coaching of slow pupils). Do not check if it is a part of Item 1 above.....	11	18

ILLUSTRATIVE SECTIONS OF THE CHECK LIST FOR
THE ORGANIZATION OF SENIOR
HIGH SCHOOL GRADES

VI. EXTRA-CURRICULUM

A. General scope of the extra-curriculum. Check (X) each type of activity in which senior high school pupils actively engage.

() 1. General pupil participation in school government.....	9	23
() 2. School publications.....	11	24
() 3. Home-room organizations.....	8	22
() 4. Club activities (not including required "study clubs")	17	25
() 5. School exhibitions.....	17	25
() 6. Assemblies conducted by pupils.....	17	24

B. General policies with respect to extra-curriculum activities.
Check (X) each statement which applies in the senior high school grades.

() 1. Clearly defined limits are set on the extent to which pu- pils may participate in extra-curriculum activities (for example, point system. Do not check if the only limita- tion is based on scholarship.).....	2	12
() 2. Funds derived from certain non-athletic activities are used to support other non-athletic activities.....	8	22

	Least Organ- ized Schools	Most Organ- ized Schools
() 3. Funds derived from athletic activities are used to support non-athletic activities.....	5	13

C. Pupil participation in school government. (Omit section "C" if not applicable.) Check (X) each statement which applies in the senior high school grades.

() 1. Certain powers and duties of the pupil organization are determined by the pupils, without restriction by the faculty.....	0	10
() 2. The pupil organization actively promotes scholarship in curriculum work.....	0	15
() 3. The pupil organization actively promotes health, thrift, or beauty of school building or grounds.....	6	23
() 4. The pupil organization actively promotes school publications.....	6	23

D. Types of clubs. (Omit sections "D" and "E" if no clubs are in operation.) Check (X) each type of club in operation this year in the senior high school grades.

() 1. Academic or "hobby" (Latin, science, aeroplane, travel, etc.).....	3	24
() 2. Musical.....	7	23
() 3. Debating or dramatic.....	7	22

E. Initiation of club activities. Check (X) each statement which applies in the senior high school grades.

() 1. One or more of the existing clubs was initiated by an interested group of pupils.....	4	23
() 2. The club program must be definitely outlined in advance of the initiation of the club.....	4	16
() 3. A club may be initiated only after a sufficient number of pupils are actively interested.....	9	24

VII. GUIDANCE

A. General program of guidance. Check (X) each activity which has been engaged in during the past year.

a) Guidance of pupils in junior high school grades with respect to the activities of senior high school grades.

() 1. A majority of the parents of pupils about to enter the senior high school grades have been informed concerning the program of the senior high school grades through the distribution of printed or mimeographed explanations.....	6	19
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The majority of the pupils in the junior high school grades who are about to enter the senior high school grades have received before admission guidance with respect to:

	Least Organ- ized Schools	Most Organ- ized Schools
() 1. Vocational choices	6	21
() 2. Choice of curriculums in the senior high school grades	7	22
() 3. Choice of specific subjects in the senior high school grades	20	25
b) Guidance of pupils in the senior high school grades with respect to the activities of those grades.		
Practically all pupils in the senior high school grades have received during the senior high school period guidance with respect to:		
() 1. Vocational choices	10	21
() 2. Choice of curriculums in the senior high school grades	17	23
() 3. Participation in extra-curriculum activities in the senior high school grades	12	19
Parents of a <i>majority</i> of the pupils in the senior high school grades have been informed concerning their children's <i>special problems</i> through:		
() 1. Individual interviews at the school	7	21
() 2. The use of printed forms (including special reports)	10	23
() 3. Group meetings with parents	3	12
B. Agencies of guidance. Check (X) each agency of guidance which has been employed in the senior high school grades during the past year for the purpose of guidance.		
() 1. Home-room advisers	7	21
() 2. Special counselor	0	15
() 3. Director of guidance or dean	0	7
() 4. School manual or handbook	2	16
() 5. Newspaper publicity or articles in school publications	10	21
() 6. Library exhibits or special library activities	5	17
() 7. Detailed cumulative records concerning individual pupils	9	20
() 8. Excursions to observe workers in specific vocations	10	20
() 9. Excursions to other educational institutions	4	13
() 10. Ratings by teachers and others of pupils' specialized vocational aptitude	3	13
() 11. Examinations of pupils' physical health	15	25
() 12. Examination of pupils' mental health	2	13
Standardized tests of:		
() 1. Mental ability or general scholastic aptitude	6	18
() 2. Probable future success in specific courses (prognostic tests)	1	11
() 3. Achievement in school subjects	7	16

SCHOOLS USED TO STANDARDIZE THE CHECK LISTS

The check list for the organization of junior high school grades was standardized by using 128 three-year junior, 65 three-three junior-senior, and 56 six-year undivided high schools, all in twelve-grade systems. The check list for the organization of senior high school grades was standardized by using 86 three-year senior, 65 three-three junior-senior, and 58 six-year undivided high schools, all in twelve-grade systems.

Replies were used from principals of 249 schools in 37 states and the District of Columbia for junior high school grades and from principals of 209 schools in 33 states for senior high school grades. All sizes of schools and all sizes of communities were well represented. However, because of the large number of small schools in the United States, a purely random sampling would have resulted in a larger number of replies from small schools than were received. Therefore, the standards for all sizes of schools combined are higher than they would have been for a purely random sampling of schools. Since the standards are given for schools in three enrolment groups, size of school is thought to be sufficiently taken into account.

The types of schools used in this investigation were found in the reorganization project of the National Survey of Secondary Education to be the types most comprehensively organized. Consequently, the standards for these types of schools should be a challenge to schools of other types.

TECHNIQUES EMPLOYED IN STANDARDIZING
THE CHECK LISTS

In the scoring each practice in school organization that was checked by a school counted one point toward its score. By use of the chance-halves (alternate-items) method and the Spearman-Brown prophecy formula, the coefficient of reliability of each of the two check lists was found to be .96. The probable error of the individual score is approximately three points in the case of each check list. It is therefore recommended that, when two individual schools are compared, little attention be paid to a difference in the total scores of less than ten or fifteen points.

Various decile scores for the entire check lists have been obtained

by using smoothed percentile curves. The quartile scores for each of the eight major phases of organization in each of the check lists were also found.

QUARTILE SCORES FOR FOUR PHASES OF ORGANIZATION
REPRESENTED IN THIS ARTICLE

Some readers may desire to check the practices of one or more schools under "Admission and Promotion" and "Organization of

TABLE I
QUARTILE SCORES OF 249 SCHOOLS OF VARIOUS SIZES COM-
PUTED FROM NUMBER OF PRACTICES CHECKED UNDER
TWO PHASES OF ORGANIZATION REPRESENTED ON THE
CHECK LIST FOR JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL GRADES VII-IX

PHASE OF ORGANIZATION	SCORE IN SCHOOLS WITH ENROLMENTS IN GRADES VII-IX OF —			
	1-180 (62 Schools)	181-600 (96 Schools)	More than 600 (91 Schools)	Total (249 Schools)
Admission and promotion:				
First quartile.....	3	4	3	4
Median.....	5	7	7	6
Third quartile.....	10	10	10	10
Organization of instruc- tion:				
First quartile.....	5	8	8	7
Median.....	8	12	11	11
Third quartile.....	11	14	14	14

Instruction" in the junior high school grades and to compare the scores of the school or schools with the quartile scores given in Table I. Other readers may wish to check the practices of some school under "Extra-Curriculum" and "Guidance" in the senior high school grades and to compare the scores of the school with the quartile scores presented in Table II.

LIMITATIONS AND VALUE OF THE CHECK LISTS

Since the check lists are limited to the organization or set-up of the school for the performance of its functions as a school, the degree of effectiveness with which practices in school organization are administered is considered to be a matter of administration rather than a matter of organization and hence beyond the scope of the

check lists. However, it is obvious that a practice cannot be well administered or utilized if it does not exist. The check lists make their contribution at this point by enabling a principal to ascertain how many and which of the practices listed in the check lists exist and which do not exist in his school. With this information at hand, the principal is in a position to add practices to the organization of his school if he so desires. The existence of many desirable and potentially important practices in school organization does not of itself

TABLE II

QUARTILE SCORES OF 209 SCHOOLS OF VARIOUS SIZES COMPUTED FROM NUMBER OF PRACTICES CHECKED UNDER TWO PHASES OF ORGANIZATION REPRESENTED ON THE CHECK LIST FOR SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL GRADES X-XII

PHASE OF ORGANIZATION	SCORE IN SCHOOLS WITH ENROLMENTS IN GRADES X-XII OF —			
	1-180 (74 Schools)	181-600 (60 Schools)	More than 600 (66 Schools)	Total (200 Schools)
Extra-curriculum:				
First quartile.....	5	10	10	8
Median.....	9	12	13	11
Third quartile.....	12	14	16	14
Guidance:				
First quartile.....	7	10	11	9
Median.....	10	14	14	13
Third quartile.....	14	18	17	16

prove that an individual school is a superior school, but their existence indicates that the school has the set-up or organization which, if properly administered and utilized, would make it a superior school.

The check lists were built around the functions of junior and senior high schools as expressed by educational leaders and practical school administrators.¹ The items of the check lists were chosen by

¹ a) Leonard V. Koos, *The Junior High School*, pp. 15-19, 131. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1927.

b) Leonard V. Koos, *The American Secondary School*, pp. 151-53, 171-73. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1927.

c) *The Junior High School Curriculum*, pp. 20-21. Fifth Yearbook of the Department of Superintendence. Washington: Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association, 1927.

Francis T. Spaulding, of Harvard University, and the writer after a careful study of educational theory and findings of research. The check lists were revised in the light of the suggestions of seven specialists in secondary education. Finally, only practices in organization which were found to be employed by a considerably larger proportion of a group of comprehensively organized schools than of a group of non-comprehensively organized schools were finally retained in the check lists.

These considerations furnish support for the inference that principals and superintendents should hesitate, when retrenchment is necessary, to eliminate practices listed in the check lists but should attempt to find more expensive or less important practices to eliminate.

USES FOR THE CHECK LISTS

The check lists can be used to score all types of high schools. It is estimated that either check list can easily be checked in thirty minutes, scored in five minutes, and the results interpreted in ten minutes—a total of forty-five minutes.

Principals, superintendents, supervisors for state departments of education, and inspectors for state universities and regional accrediting agencies should find the check lists helpful in scrutinizing the organization or set-up of schools and in comparing schools with one another and with the schools used for standardizing the check lists on a nation-wide basis. These comparisons can be made, not only for each check list as a whole, but also for separate major phases of organization, such as admission and promotion, program of studies, extra-curriculum, and guidance.

A school can be compared, not only with various ten percentiles for total scores and with the quartiles for separate phases of organization for all the schools used in standardization, but also with standards for schools of approximately its own size. The quartile scores on separate phases of organization make it possible to ascertain approximately whether a school ranks in the top fourth, top half, bottom half, or bottom fourth of schools with respect to each of the phases of organization. By comparing the relative standing of a school on the various phases of organization, one can determine

which phases of organization are probably most in need of additional practices.

After ascertaining how many and which of the practices in the check lists are employed in his school, the principal may desire to add to the school organization certain practices mentioned in the check list. Just which new practices should be adopted in a given school will depend on such factors as the parts of the organization most in need of additional practices; the teaching personnel; the finances of the community; and the needs, the interests, and the abilities of the pupils in the school. Many of the practices in the check lists call for little or no additional expenditure of money but rather for careful planning and a large degree of resourcefulness on the part of administrative officers.

If retrenchment in a school's program is imperative, the check lists should be helpful in indicating practices which should not be sacrificed except as a last resort. The check lists and the scores on them should indicate also which phases of the school's organization can be curtailed with the minimum damage to the organization of the school as a whole.

SELECTED REFERENCES ON HIGHER EDUCATION¹

JOHN DALE RUSSELL
University of Chicago

FLOYD W. REEVES
Director of Personnel, Tennessee Valley Authority

GORDON R. CLAPP
Assistant to the Director of Personnel, Tennessee Valley Authority

A period of fifteen months, from April 1, 1932, to June 30, 1933, is covered by this review. The list includes no references that concern only teacher training, inasmuch as the publications in that field are to be reported in the December number of the *Elementary School Journal*. References on the subject of guidance, which appeared in the September number of the *School Review*, have also been omitted.²

Current activity and interest in the field of higher education is indicated by the fact that a total of more than five hundred titles were found to have been published on this subject during the fifteen-month period. Forty-five of these titles were books (including year-books); thirty-two were bulletins; and the remainder were articles in periodicals. A preliminary classification of these titles according to their importance showed that between sixty and seventy should by all means be included in this list of selected references, while approximately one hundred others were sufficiently important to make their inclusion highly desirable. The limitations of the space assigned for this list have made it impossible to include all the titles that were selected as worthy of inclusion. Somewhat arbitrarily, therefore, it has been decided to confine the list principally to titles appearing in book or bulletin form and not to refer to articles in periodicals except in cases where these articles comprise noteworthy symposiums.

¹ This list is one of a cycle of twenty lists covering all major aspects of the field of education which is being published co-operatively by the *School Review* and the *Elementary School Journal*. The cycle began with the January issues and closes with the December issues of these two journals. The second cycle will begin in the January, 1934, issues.

² For example, see Items 377 and 402.

524. AMERICAN COUNCIL ON EDUCATION. "Proceedings of the Fifteenth Annual Meeting," *Educational Record*, XIII (July, 1932), 192-238.
A series of papers by Albert B. Meredith, Luther A. Weigle, Ray Lyman Wilbur, James Grafton Rogers, and William E. Wickenden on the question of the agencies and factors that control educational policies in various branches of professional education.
525. ANTHONY, ALFRED WILLIAMS (Editor). *Trusts and Trusteeships*. Wise Public Giving Series, No. 39. New York: Committee on Financial and Fiduciary Matters, Federal Council of the Churches of Christ in America, 1932. Pp. 120.
A series of papers presented at the Mid-West Conference on Financial and Fiduciary Matters in 1932, which pertain to the pros and cons of trusteeships of corporate character, community chests, trust agreements, perpetuity of trusts, etc.
526. BROWN, ALBERT ERNEST. *The Effectiveness of Large Classes at the College Level*. University of Iowa Studies, Vol. VII, No. 3. Iowa City: University of Iowa, 1932. Pp. 66.
Summarizes previous studies of the effectiveness of large classes and describes experiments conducted at Iowa State Teachers College to determine effect of size variable using same techniques and size-procedure variable using new techniques devised for large classes.
527. BRUMBAUGH, A. J. "Extra-Curriculum Activities," and "Adjustments and Classifications in Colleges and Universities," *Pupil Personnel, Guidance and Counseling*, pp. 223-37. Review of Educational Research, Vol. III, No. 3. Washington: American Educational Research Association of the National Education Association, 1933.
Under each title is presented a synthesized review of the various research studies and descriptive reports that have appeared in recent years. Extensive bibliographies are included.
528. CHAMBERLAIN, LEO M., and MEECE, L. E. *State Performance in Higher Education*. Bulletin of the Bureau of School Service, Vol. V, No. 3. Lexington, Kentucky: University of Kentucky, 1933. Pp. 38.
Analysis of data from the *Biennial Survey of Education in the United States, 1928-1930*, published by the United States Office of Education. The states are ranked on basis of facilities for higher education.
529. "Conference on College Admissions and Guidance," *Educational Record*, XIV (January, 1933), 15-114.
Papers presented by W. S. Learned, J. B. Johnston, F. L. McVey, C. S. Boucher, D. A. Robertson, and H. W. Holmes cover various aspects of the problem of college admissions and educational guidance.
530. "Co-ordination in Higher Education," *Journal of Higher Education*, IV (March, 1933), 107-50, 164.
A series of papers by S. P. Capen, Robert E. Vinson, W. O. Thompson, W. W. Charters, Edward Safford Jones, Melvin A. Brannon, Harlan H. Horner, John T. Tigert, Arthur J. Klein and W. Ray Smittle, and George A. Works. Various aspects of the problem of co-ordination in higher education are discussed.

531. COWEN, PHILIP A. *College Entrance Inquiry*. University of the State of New York Bulletin, No. 1007. Albany, New York: University of the State of New York Press, 1932. Pp. 124.
Reports a statistical study and evaluation of the entrance qualifications of 8,409 students in 40 colleges in the state of New York compared with 50 colleges outside the state. Makes definite recommendations pertaining to admissions policies.
532. COWLEY, W. H. *The Personnel Bibliographical Index*. Columbus, Ohio: Ohio State University, 1932. Pp. vi+434.
Lists and evaluates some 2,100 titles in the field of personnel administration in colleges and universities. Subject index, annotated titles, and author index enable facile use of the materials listed.
533. EATON, THEODORE H. *College Teaching*. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1932. Pp. xii+264.
A discussion of the psychology of college teaching and a formulation of principles, with examples to illustrate application of the principles.
534. ECKELBERRY, R. H. *The History of the Municipal University in the United States*. United States Office of Education Bulletin No. 2, 1932. Pp. viii+214.
Describes the founding, growth, organization, control, and administration of the eleven municipal universities in the United States. Each institution is described separately. A summary includes statement concerning the municipal university as a part of the expansion and upward extension of publicly supported education. A bibliography is included.
535. EDMONSON, J. B. "A Conference on Educational Trends," *North Central Association Quarterly*, VII (December, 1932), 313-33.
A symposium of comments, data, and opinions submitted by selected representatives of the secondary schools and colleges and universities of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools called together to discuss the problems relating to articulation of secondary and college levels.
536. FAIRCHILD, HENRY PRATT (Editor). *The Obligation of Universities to the Social Order*. New York: New York University Press, 1933. Pp. xlvii+504.
Addresses and discussions at a conference of universities, held in New York in November, 1932, pertaining to the aims and province of the university, economic changes and the university, the effect of governmental changes on the university, and spiritual values and the university.
537. GEE, WILSON. *Research Barriers in the South*. New York: Century Co., 1932. Pp. x+192.
A comprehensive questionnaire study of conditions in the South affecting research in social science. Presents data showing salary levels, teaching loads, and living costs.
538. GEROULD, JAMES THAYER. *The College Library Building: Its Planning and Equipment*. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1932. Pp. x+116.
A discussion of requirements for the satisfactory housing of the college library, based on the author's practical experience as librarian of Princeton University and on visits to more than fifty representative American colleges.

539. GRAY, WILLIAM S. (Editor). *Provision for the Individual in College Education*. Proceedings of the Institute for Administrative Officers of Higher Institutions, Vol. IV. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1932. Pp. viii+262.

A symposium of twenty papers by various authors, with attention concentrated on the problem of individualization in higher education. Underlying philosophy, student selection and admission, curriculum, extra-curriculum activities, health and living conditions, and financial problems are among the topics considered.

540. HAGGERTY, M. E. (Chairman). *Collegiate Educational Research, University of Minnesota: The Report of the Committee on Educational Research for the Biennium 1930-32*. Bulletin of the University of Minnesota, Vol. XXXVI, No. 1. Minneapolis, Minnesota: University of Minnesota, 1933. Pp. 32.

Summarizes the findings of research studies in higher education carried on at the University of Minnesota. Contains bibliography of 320 titles by members of the Committee on Educational Research at the University of Minnesota.

541. HILL, DAVID S., and KELLY, FRED J. *Economy in Higher Education*. New York: Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, 1933. Pp. viii+128.

Defines the issues involved in the problem of economy in higher education and summarizes in a comprehensive manner studies, reports, and discussions bearing on the problem. Guiding principles in retrenchment are suggested.

542. HUGHES, WILLIAM LEONARD. *The Administration of Health and Physical Education for Men in Colleges and Universities*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 541. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1932. Pp. viii+182.

Lists 288 standards judged essential by selected judges and analyzes current practices and opinions in the administration of health and physical education for men at the college level.

543. JONES, EDWARD SAFFORD. *Comprehensive Examinations in American Colleges*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1933. Pp. xx+436.

Describes the operation and the organization of comprehensive examinations and the techniques used to prepare students for these examinations in American colleges and universities.

544. KELLY, FRED J., and MCNEELY, JOHN H. *The State and Higher Education*. New York: Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching in co-operation with the United States Office of Education, 1933. Pp. xii+282.

The public and private systems of higher education in ten selected states are listed, described, and charted, with information concerning type of institution, control, and curricular offerings. The prevalence and nature of the trend toward unified control are discussed. Significant, comparable data for the various states are given.

545. KELLY, ROBERT L. (Editor). *How Can the Colleges Be Financed?* Bulletin of the Association of American Colleges, Vol. XVIII, No. 3. New York: Association of American Colleges, 1932.
A symposium of papers and studies concerning the problem of college finance. Presents a cross-section of current financial problems of the small liberal-arts college. Discusses financial campaigns, reduced budgets, and plans for economy.
546. KOTSCHNIG, WALTER M., and PRYS, ELINED (Editors). *The University in a Changing World*. London: Oxford University Press, 1932. Pp. 224.
Essays on comparative education, with emphasis on the various conceptions of the true function of the university. The discussion of the German, French, English, American, Italian, and Russian universities and the Catholic university are prefaced by a synthesizing introduction calling attention to the lack of a common ideal.
547. LARSON, J. FREDRICK, and PALMER, ARCHIE M. *Architectural Planning of the American College*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1933. Pp. 182.
A description of recent developments and desirable practices in the architectural planning of the buildings and grounds of institutions of higher education, with special reference to the small college.
548. MACCRACKEN, JOHN HENRY (Editor). *American Universities and Colleges*. Baltimore: Williams & Wilkins Co., 1932. Pp. xiv+1066.
Prefaces a complete directory of American colleges and universities with a concise account of higher education in its various aspects. Includes statistical data pertaining to 521 accredited institutions. Presents supplementary information pertaining to accrediting associations, research organizations, etc.
549. MACNEEL, JOSEPH RAYMOND. *Admission of Students as Candidates for Master's Degree*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 524. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1932. Pp. viii+92.
A statistical study of some five hundred students who received the degree of Master of Arts from Columbia University.
550. MEIKLEJOHN, ALEXANDER. *The Experimental College*. New York: Harper & Bros., 1932. Pp. xx+422.
Prefaces an explanation and appraisal of the Experimental College of the University of Wisconsin with a discussion of aims and philosophical bases of liberal education.
551. NATIONAL COMMITTEE ON STANDARD REPORTS FOR INSTITUTIONS OF HIGHER EDUCATION. *A Study of Methods Used in Unit-Cost Studies in Higher Education*, Bulletin No. 3, pp. vi+34; *Recommended Classification of Expenditures by Object*, Bulletin No. 4, pp. vi+10; *Suggested Forms for Internal Financial Reports of Colleges and Universities*, Bulletin No. 5, pp. viii+48; *Suggested Forms for Enrolment Reports of Colleges*

and *Universities*, Bulletin No. 6, pp. vi+30. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1932.

These bulletins describe a reporting system that has been developed in an attempt to introduce uniformity into the practices of reporting financial and statistical data in American colleges and universities.

552. PRESSEY, LUELLA COLE, and PRESSEY, SIDNEY L. *Essential Preparation for College*. New York: Ray Long & Richard R. Smith, Inc., 1932. Pp. 60.

An itemization of the elements of preparation in specific fields of study that seem essential for success in Freshman college courses. Based on study of textbooks at both college and secondary-school levels and analysis of student errors and deficiencies.

553. RANDALL, WILLIAM M. *The College Library*. Chicago: American Library Association and University of Chicago Press, 1932. Pp. xii+166.

Describes the library of the four-year liberal-arts college as revealed by an intensive study of 205 libraries. Principles of library function, equipment, administration, and book-collection standards are discussed.

554. REEVES, FLOYD W. "Finance and Business Management in Institutions of Higher Education," *Finance and Business Administration*, pp. 116-33. Review of Educational Research, Vol. II, No. 2. Washington: American Educational Research Association of the National Education Association, 1932.

A detailed summary of research studies in the field of finance and business management of institutions of higher education made during the period from July, 1924, to July, 1931. Includes selected bibliography.

555. REEVES, FLOYD W., and OTHERS. *The Liberal Arts College*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1932. Pp. xxvi+716.

Presents comprehensive and detailed data and discussion pertaining to the four-year liberal-arts college in America as revealed by a survey of thirty-five colleges related to the Methodist Episcopal Church. Generalizations of principles are drawn from the objective data presented.

556. REEVES, FLOYD W., and OTHERS. *The University of Chicago Survey*, Vols. I-XII. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1933.

Titles include: I, *Trends in University Growth*; II, *Organization and Administration of the University*; III, *The University Faculty*; IV, *Instructional Problems in the University*; V, *Admission and Retention of University Students*; VI, *The Alumni of the Colleges*; VII, *The University Libraries*; VIII, *The University Extension Services*; IX, *University Plant Facilities*; X, *Some University Student Problems*; XI, *Class Size and Unit Costs*; XII, *The Oriental Institute*.

557. *Report of Commission on University Consolidation*. Raleigh, North Carolina: Commission on University Consolidation, 1932. Pp. iv+100.

The report of a survey, under the direction of George A. Works, conducted for the purpose of consolidating and unifying the state-supported program of higher education in North Carolina.

558. "Report of the Committee on Revision of Standards," *North Central Association Quarterly*, VII (September, 1932), 185-205.
This preliminary report includes: (1) an address by George F. Zook on the need of new standards; (2) a report by M. E. Haggerty on faculty, curriculums, objectives, and examinations; (3) a report by Floyd W. Reeves on the study of college administration, plant facilities, and finance. Basis for revised standards is indicated.
559. RUSSELL, JOHN DALE. *Efficiency in College Management*. Bulletin of the School of Education, Indiana University, Vol. VII, No. 6. Bloomington, Indiana: Indiana University School of Education, 1931. Pp. 144.
A review of the various types of inefficiency in college management observed by the writer in the course of an extended series of surveys, and the development of a technique for computing the amount of ineffective expenditure in an institution of higher education.
560. TEWKSBURY, DONALD G. *The Founding of American Colleges and Universities before the Civil War*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 543. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1932. Pp. x+254.
Traces the development of American colleges through the Colonial period, the denominational movement, and the founding of state universities prior to the Civil War. Gives complete tables, maps, lists of college charters with dates, and changes of name. A bibliography is included.
561. TYLER, RALPH W., and OTHERS. *Service Studies in Higher Education*. Bureau of Educational Research Monographs, No. 15. Columbus, Ohio: Ohio State University, 1932. Pp. viii+284.
A collection of sixteen reports illustrating techniques of studying instructional problems at the college level in a number of different subject-matter fields. Treats also the methods of encouraging superior Freshman students.
562. UNIVERSITY OF MAINE, in co-operation with BATES, BOWDOIN, and COLBY COLLEGES. *Survey of Higher Education in Maine*. Orono, Maine: University of Maine, 1932. Pp. x+430.
Reports an exhaustive array of data pertaining to the way in which the University of Maine, and Colby, Bates, and Bowdoin Colleges are meeting the educational needs of the state.
563. WILKINS, ERNEST HATCH. *The College and Society*. New York: Century Co., 1932. Pp. xii+174.
Proposes a reorganization of the traditional four-year college curriculum designed to meet the needs of the students more satisfactorily.
564. WOOD, STRUTHERS & CO. *Trusteeship of American Endowments*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1932. Pp. xiv+156.
Presents data pertaining to scope and character of trusteeship of charitable corporations in the United States, with especial detailed study of investment experience of thirty leading universities.

Educational Writings

REVIEWS AND BOOK NOTES

A handbook on the difficulties of indoctrination.—The third volume of the Report of the Commission on the Investigation of the Social Studies¹ deals with a theme of import not only to social-science teachers but to all who are interested in public education, and perhaps especially to the administrators of schools. The volume presents a survey of the types of organized group influences which play today on any school concerned with education for citizenship. Comprehensive, objective, unbiased, the book paints a rare picture of the welter of opinions and prejudices and hopes with which a democratic, organization-loving people imbue, or seek to imbue, their schools.

In two earlier books Miss Pierce has described the relation of public opinion or public opinions and the school, but this volume is not merely a re-doing of earlier work. The book has eight main divisions: (1) "The Educational and Civic Policies of Patriotic Organizations," (2) "The Educational and Civic Policies of Military Groups," (3) "The Programs of Peace Organizations," (4) "The Policies of Fraternal Groups," (5) "The Programs of Religious and Racial Groups," (6) "Movements of Youth," (7) "Policies of Business and Labor Groups," and (8) "The Programs of Prohibition and Anti-Prohibition Groups." Each of these parts is composed of chapters presenting the educational policies and plans of specific organizations. About 150 organizations are dealt with, including the Daughters of the American Revolution and the Young Communist League, the American Legion and the League of Nations Association, the American Gas Association and the Public Ownership League of America. The program of each organization, so far as it is concerned with civic education in or through the schools, is set forth without comment, and with liberal quotation from official publications. An extensive appendix amplifies the list of quotations. All programs dealt with have been formulated since the World War; most of them are the products of the years since 1926.

The book has marked significance for those who are concerned with the question of indoctrination in the schools. It is a reference book of differences and difficulties to be encountered in agreeing upon a program for a "new social or-

¹ Bessie Louise Pierce, *Citizens' Organizations and the Civic Training of Youth*. Report of the Commission on the Social Studies of the American Historical Association, Part III. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1933. Pp. xviii+428. \$2.00.

der." It has infinite food for thought for those who have to face the question of teaching controversial issues in the school. Unfortunately, perhaps, but by intent, the book gives no indication of the author's or the commission's attitude toward the problems inherent in its material. The book is a presentation of data—descriptive, authentic, impersonal, and clearly stated—but it is not a platform or a proposal of policy. That it is not a platform but that it has to do with fundamental matters makes the volume of "Conclusions and Recommendations" promised by the commission a volume much to be anticipated. Miss Pierce's book helps lay a sane foundation for a program or a set of policies yet to be presented.

HOWARD E. WILSON

HARVARD UNIVERSITY

Our public schools in previous economic depressions.—There is probably no more significant nor disastrous concomitant of the existing and long-continued economic depression than the present ruthless manner in which educational institutions of every class, and with them the needs of childhood and youth, are being sacrificed to the selfishness of organized minorities. It is difficult, therefore, to think of a more timely or promising subject for investigation than that chosen by Pitkin.¹

In a series of five chapters (followed by a concluding chapter) accompanied by fifty-nine clearly organized tables, Pitkin presents the most significant facts regarding school support, attendance, and institutional growth characterizing six historic economic depressions from 1837 to 1921. Each chapter opens with a brief, but vivid, account of the steps which led up to a financial panic and the succeeding depression. Then follows an account of the growth of schools and school support in certain selected states. Excepting only the southern states in the third depression (1873-78), the story for almost every state considered in each period appears to be the same, namely, marked progress in growth of schools, school attendance, and expenditures.

Pitkin's study represents a large amount of painstaking, conscientious, and careful work necessary for the assembling of data from original sources. It is well organized and presented in a clear and enviable style. It has rendered a valuable service in making known the fact that in previous depressions expenditures for schools have been increased rather than curtailed. Nevertheless, taken as a whole, the study is disappointing, for it fails entirely to fulfil the author's declared purpose of discovering from previous depressions suggestions "of value to the harassed administrators and teachers" (p. 9) of the present era.

The information that in all previous periods of great economic depression public schools have made marked advances and that school expenditures have increased, unaccompanied by any explanation as to why and how such a para-

¹ Royce Stanley Pitkin, *Public School Support in the United States during Periods of Economic Depression*. Brattleboro, Vermont: Stephen Daye Press, 1933. Pp. 144. \$1.50.

dox existed, can be of little value to "harassed administrators and teachers" of 1933 and certainly furnishes no "basis for the consideration of educational policies during such periods" (p. 9).

In order to have fulfilled its purpose and to have rendered valuable assistance to educational leaders and citizens at the present time, this study not only should have shown clearly the various social and economic forces and policies which explain the paradox of economic depressions accompanied by increased school expenditures but should have pointed out the many ways in which the earlier periods of depression differ from the present. The earlier depression periods were characterized by a relatively small number of public expenditures, an absence of costly state and national road-building programs, state and local pension systems, federal subsidies for agriculture and industry. Again, in earlier depressions general property was more able to bear increased school burdens because it was bearing fewer other burdens and in many cases was more genuinely potentially productive. A typical question which the author might well have raised is whether the progress of the public schools in the first two or three depressions was not due in part to the fact that schools were more largely in the hands of citizens descended from the native stocks of northwestern continental Europe.

UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA

FLETCHER HARPER SWIFT

An experimental study of children's preferences in color.—The objectives of contemporary education in art are the development of good taste, appreciation of beauty wherever found, and the encouragement of originality and feeling in art participation. Because of the subjective qualities of the objectives of art education, it has become more difficult to apply objective, scientific research procedure to the subject than it was when drawing alone was the whole of the "art" lesson. When imitation, rather than creation, was emphasized, tests were easy to devise and score because the entire emphasis was placed on the material and objective results of drawing. These tests formed the early contributions of art education to research.

A recent monograph¹ stands out in great contrast with the earlier writings. The author has wisely selected a phase of art education which lends itself to objective measurement. The study of color preferences has formerly been approached within a very narrow range. This study uses the full range of the twelve standard hues now accepted in art education rather than a random group or a limited range of hues. The review of previous investigations on color discrimination and appreciation reveals the author's understanding of the limitation of such works as well as their contribution to research in this field. It is surprising to find that previous studies did not use the full range of the twelve standard hues.

¹ Ann Van Nice Gale, *Children's Preferences for Colors, Color Combinations, and Color Arrangements*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1933. Pp. xvi+60. \$1.25.

The problem of the study was to "determine children's preference for colors, color combinations, and color arrangements" (p. 1). The monograph deals not only with children's reaction to single isolated hues, as have previous studies, but also with their reaction to definite color combinations of two and three hues. This study further compares "the influence of preference for single colors on the use of colors in arrangement" (p. 1) and on the choice of colored prints.

The purpose of the study was "to discover tendencies in children's innate preferences for colors" as of value for a "firm foundation for teaching color appreciation" and as a "basis for the choice of color for children's toys, books, and rooms" (p. 1).

The method followed in this study was to devise and to administer ten simple color tests. The subjects tested were 521 children in Grades III-VIII in elementary schools in Chicago. In two of these tests the subjects selected and arranged hues in cut-paper patterns, each of which was represented in the twelve standard hues. The results of these tests were compared with the results of the test of the preference for single hues to determine their influence on the selection of color combinations. A further study was made of the influence of preference for certain hue combinations on the choice of colored prints in similar color schemes.

The results of this study suggest to the reviewer that further studies should be made of the subject matter and methods of teaching present systems of color "harmony" in the elementary schools. It was found that experience with color did not affect the results of the tests in succeeding grades. The results showed a marked similarity in choice of hues in all the different schools selected. The study is to be commended for presenting objective evidence concerning color preferences and for suggesting a practical technique of research which may be of value in the study of other phases of art education. It is felt that this publication will stimulate and encourage further research in art education.

The reviewer feels that the investigator should have gone farther by keeping a constant of values and chromas for all the hues used. In the tests the hues varied in value from the dark of strong violet to the light of strong yellow. Value enters into the selection of color schemes so strongly that it seems uncertain whether the choices made in this study were purely choices of hue differences. The present study will make comparison with future studies simpler and more scientific than comparison with the past studies because of the use of definitely described pigments. However, it would have been more scientific to use a more accurate system of color nomenclature, involving the three dimensions of color: hue, value, and chroma. In the selection of the prints involving complementary color combinations, it would have been more scientific to use identical decorative compositions as a constant, with hues variable, rather than the three different types of painting used. For example, a decorative Japanese actor print could have been presented in several different color combinations. The subject matter, the technique, and the composition of the prints used varied so greatly that it is difficult to accept the conclusion that the preferences recorded were based

solely on color. The study will be of greater value when the tests have been administered in other sections of the country—for example, to the children in certain agricultural sections where the schools have never afforded art experience and the environment of daily life is barren of stimulating color or to children in cities of more exotic environment, where color plays a stimulating part of daily life and is established in the school curriculum. It is self-evident that the results of such tests will carry much more weight after the tests have been administered to a much larger number of children in various types of communities.

ROBERT STOSE HILPERT

UNIVERSITY OF MINNESOTA

Diagnostic check lists of organization.—It is to be expected that the National Survey of Secondary Education will be suggestive of many other worthy studies, some of which will require no original data other than those available from the survey itself. An illustration may be found in a commendable, practical dissertation¹ which is derived from data collected for Monograph No. 5 of the survey entitled *The Reorganization of Secondary Education*. The study carries to completion independently of the survey the validation and the standardization of a scoring system for the organization of high schools.

The author takes as his problem (1) the identification of practices in organization which discriminate between schools most comprehensively organized and schools less comprehensively organized and (2) the standardization of two check lists of these practices to be used as measures of the comprehensiveness and consistency of organization. The results are a check list of 151 practices in school organization applicable to the junior high school and a parallel check list of 134 practices applicable to the senior high school. Each check list is more than 70 per cent efficient, and either may be easily checked, scored, and interpreted within three-quarters of an hour.

The method of identification of the discriminating practices is by comparison of practices in non-overlapping groups of schools scored for comprehensiveness of organization on the basis of the number of practices of organization reported by the respondents to Inquiry Form No. 28 of the survey. Twenty-five junior and twenty-five senior high schools most comprehensively organized are compared with twenty-five junior and twenty-five senior high schools least comprehensively organized. Results from an intermediate group of twenty-five schools in each case are carried as a control group. The standardization techniques are based on coefficients of reliability derived from practices in a large number of schools. The major phases of organization included in the check lists are: admission and promotion, organization of instruction, program of studies, articulation, teaching staff, extra-curriculum, guidance, and supervision. In

¹ Orie I. Frederick, *Two Standardized Check Lists for the Organization of Secondary Schools: One for Junior High School Grades and One for Senior High School Grades*. Ann Arbor, Michigan: Ann Arbor Press, 1933. Pp. 64.

nearly all instances the statistical differences discovered are sufficient to justify the use of the check lists as measuring devices.

The major utility claimed for the check lists is diagnostic. They are instruments by which administrators may systematically and objectively scrutinize the organization of their schools to discover the phases of organization probably most in need of attention. A selected bibliography is included.

GEORGE WASHINGTON UNIVERSITY

J. ORIN POWERS

Materials for shorthand.—The high school borrowed from the private business college most of its commercial subjects, together with the teachers, textbooks, and the methods found in the private schools. Very slowly has come recognition of the fact that the high school is a different type of school, with pupils of different types, and that there is a need of objectives and methods in line with the strides taken by other secondary-school subjects. In the early days commercial teachers were substandard educators; their loads were too heavy for experimentation; and their programs were too varied to permit of any great degree of specialization in any one subject.

The great impetus felt by commercial education during the last decade has, however, both permitted and compelled attention to methods and results. New methods in shorthand-teaching have appeared, the so-called "direct method" offering the most promise. The advocates of this method point out the similarity of the problem of learning to read and write shorthand to that of learning to read and write longhand—the comprehension of thoughts expressed in language symbols—and they make use of the best present-day methods in the more advanced field of learning longhand.

General adoption of the new method has been held back by the lack of materials suitable for the approach that it uses. The pioneers in this work have been few, and progress has been slow because of the need of developing and testing out the materials of instruction. Those who are interested in this method and have a desire to try it will welcome a book¹ which has lately made its appearance in this virgin field.

The authors present 352 pages of shorthand plates, which run parallel with the Anniversary Edition of Gregg's Manual. Care has been taken to present vocabulary and material at the thought level of the high-school pupil and to select letters and articles designed to build up the vocational intelligence of the future stenographer while her skill is being developed. The book is of convenient size for classroom use and has well-written, clear-cut outlines that make it readable. An introductory chapter addressed to the teacher gives a concise description of the direct method, suggestions for the assignment and for the measurement of achievement.

¹ Ann Brewington and Helen I. Soutter, *Direct-Method Materials for Gregg Shorthand*. New York: Gregg Publishing Co., 1933. Pp. xxxviii+392.

While the book emerges as the product of five years of experimentation to meet the need for direct-method materials, it has the merit of fitting in well with any successful method of teaching shorthand. The teacher who is not yet ready to forsake the method in which she is proficient will find these materials of great value to her pupils.

JOHN M. TRYTTEN

UNIVERSITY OF MICHIGAN

A commendable textbook in mathematics for Grade VII.—In recent years many efforts have been made to modernize the materials of junior high school mathematics. The present standard syllabuses divide the work of Grade VII between arithmetic and intuitive geometry; extend the work in these fields and introduce algebra in Grade VIII; and devote the major part of the work in Grade IX to algebra, with some additional attention to arithmetic and intuitive geometry, at the same time introducing some demonstrative geometry and the simpler concepts of trigonometry. The first volume of a new series in this field¹ harmonizes with this standard arrangement by the use of an approximately equal division between arithmetic and geometry.

In general, the plan followed devotes alternate chapters to arithmetic and geometry. The book is divided into three major divisions of six chapters each. In the first division the chapters on arithmetic and geometry can be correlated readily, since the geometric material introduced is of such a nature that it provides considerable practice in the fundamentals of arithmetic. The introduction attempts to provide motivation for the entire work, and each chapter is introduced with a motivating discussion. The instructions to the teacher outline the major features of the book and give helpful suggestions for carrying out the teaching program of the year.

The arithmetical content of the book may be indicated by the following chapter headings: "Making Sure of Fundamentals," "Fractions," "Decimal Fractions," "Percentage," "Common Uses of Percentage," "Harder Problems in Percentage," "Common Business Methods and Forms," and "Thrift and Banking." The content of these chapters is of a practical nature.

The geometrical content is also of a practical nature, emphasis being placed on form and measurement. The following chapter headings indicate the nature of the geometry introduced: "Important Shapes and Positions," "The Study of Size," "The Study of Position," "Making Progress in Exact Measurement," "Graphs," "The Circle," "The Angle," "Circles and Angles," "The Triangle," and "Areas and Volume." The chapters on geometry are well illustrated with pictures, drawings, and figures.

The book has a wealth of problems and practice exercises. The more difficult of these are marked for optional or honor work. An unusually good selection of

¹ William Betz, *Junior Mathematics for Today*, Book I. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1933. Pp. x+406. \$0.88.

practical exercise material is included, and enough distinct drill exercises are given to insure mastery of fundamentals. In addition to tests for each chapter, there are four inventory tests, nine tests on mastery of the fundamentals, and a final comprehensive mastery test at the end of the book. The inventory and the mastery tests are time tests, but no norms are given. The value of these tests would have been much enhanced by the inclusion of standards of achievement.

Reference tables, chapter summaries, and a good index are valuable parts of the volume. The book is made up attractively and is substantially bound to withstand hard use. It follows good modern theory in mathematical material and methods for use in Grade VII.

OLIVER L. TROXEL

COLORADO STATE TEACHERS COLLEGE
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Teaching creative expression.—Creative expression has been widely mistaken for a means of producing literary artists. It is, on the contrary, merely a means of making all pupils see more in life and making them better able to exchange impressions with their fellow-men. It aims to raise intercourse from the animal to the human level by giving the intercourse some spiritual, intellectual, and artistic value.

The feasibility of such instruction being granted, its social uses are unquestioned. Heightened sensitiveness to the color, form, and movement of life not only enriches personal happiness but is the prime requisite for a literary audience, since those who see little in life cannot even decipher the alphabet in which the artist writes. Nor can one who has never tried to re-create such perceptions in his own daily speech or writing fully understand the purpose and value of art. The world has never produced great art except for a great audience. All periods of cultural florescence have been epochs in which the artists' public was itself creative. Medieval cathedrals were built for a populace of craftsmen. Greek sculptors carved for a public trained to beautiful self-expression through the gymnastic dance. The Renaissance artist catered to aristocratic amateurs who themselves in dress, in interior decoration, and with pen and lute and brush and chisel practiced the arts they patronized. Shakespeare wrote his sonnets for a court whose most trifling page-boy could also turn a pretty rhyme.

The printing press and universal education have immensely enlarged the writer's public. Is this vast new popular audience a great audience in the creative sense? Machinery has killed craftsmanship. Dress is standardized. Apartment dwelling has cut off creative expression through architecture and gardening. The dance is routinized. The radio and the phonograph replace home-made music. At what point in life can American children experience the creative urge that will mature them into an audience for art which is more than mere entertainment and excitement for the nerves? Perhaps creative expression in the school may be the answer.

Whether the classroom can so enrich popular life and build a great artistic audience; whether it can actually aid artistic genius; whether the current interest in creative expression dies out like many other beautiful, unrealized, pedagogic dreams or becomes a permanent part of general education, depends on whether standard methods of instruction can be devised which are capable of successful wholesale application.

The most important steps toward devising such standard methods in the literary field have been taken by Luella Cook, Phyllis Robbins, and Alma Paschall. Mrs. Cook, starting with the common daily experiences of her pupils, assumes that whatever sharpens their observation, stimulates original thought and feeling, interests them in trying to express personal reactions, and starts them seeking for accurate, colorful words in which to phrase their thoughts and reactions, will cause both the gifted individual and the mass of men to see more in life, to live more richly, to find more joy in communication, to talk and write more entertainingly, and to share more readily the artistic creations of others—whether these are friendly letters and conversations or the masterpieces of literary genius. Not stories, poems, and essays, not techniques, but the seeing eye, the active mind, and the crisp word are Mrs. Cook's objectives. Such teaching is, indeed, the subsoil on which alone can flourish the specialized training of clever pupils in the literary forms to which their talents are adapted—on which can be carried forward, for instance, such work as that described by Miss Robbins and Miss Paschall.

What Mrs. Cook does for the outer world, Miss Robbins, with her psychological approach to writing, would do for the inner life by making the pupil more analytically aware of his intellectual processes and better able to distinguish between, and better able to express, the various stages of perception, reflection, and imagination by which we digest experience and make it our own.

Miss Paschall's aims are more definitely literary. Her current book¹ is directed, first, at giving the pupil confidence in the literary interest of his experience and, second, at building up the special skills necessary for expressing this experience in the more difficult literary forms. Her approach to the subject may strike some critics as sentimental. Creative expression is represented as a castle, whose portcullis is called "Acquiring Self-Confidence." "Will Power" is the key which opens the inner gates of "Poise" and "Observation." In the courtyard hangs "The Lamp of Imagination" to light one through the dark corners of the castle. As one wanders through it, he finds rooms labeled "Experience," "The Lives of Others," "Think Quickly," and "Speak Convincingly"—in the last of which hang maps (outlines) which save one costly detours. As one mounts the castle stairs, he looks in "The Mirror of Personality" and studies that fascinating person—himself. He enters "The Theater of Visualization," wanders in "The Garden of Individuality," opens "The Door of Interpretation," works in

¹ Alma Paschall, *Creative Expression*. New York: Harper & Bros., 1933. Pp. x+280. \$1.20.

the literary "Workshop" and in "The Story Studio," and finally climbs "The Tower of Poetry." There is something a little "camp-fire-girlish" and "boy-scoutish" about such devices; yet the high-school age is the age of sentiment and symbol, and the teacher who can use such methods with a straight face and a whole heart is rewarded by a passionate and devoted response. Heaven knows there is little enough outlet in school work for the play of the sentiment surging in the adolescent victims of our instruction! Miss Paschall's sentiment is never mawkish; her devices are seldom forced; and her wealth of activity suggestions cover almost every phase of pupil experience and result naturally in every mode of expression in every literary form.

Miss Paschall assumes correct mechanics and goes on to the more absorbing game of style, which she makes real and understandable to the most downright temper. Beginning with spontaneous practice at conversation in a multitude of imaginary situations, the pupil is led to describe, narrate, explain, and argue, not according to academic categories, but as the activity demands. Having thus incidentally built up facility in all these literary techniques, he is confidently ready to use his skill in the writing of stories and verse. Two final chapters replete with illustration and analysis are devoted to practice in such writing.

Miss Paschall's strength lies in her ability to devise an activity program in the course of which the various types of literary finger exercises can be purposefully practiced in natural situations. The book is literally a treasure-house of stimulating individual assignments and is undoubtedly the best textbook extant for a high-school semester of creative writing. And it has two supreme virtues: It is brightly readable (so readable that pupils who have been given it merely for reference have gone out and purchased a copy for themselves), and it is practically self-teaching and self-explanatory.

RUTH MARY WEEKS

PASEO HIGH SCHOOL, KANSAS CITY, MISSOURI

A usable anthology of American literature.—A recent anthology of American literature¹ presents a wealth of interesting selections, both stimulating and well written, designed to give young people an acquaintance with some of the best that has been said and thought in America in the present and in times past.

In addition to the usual selections from American oratory, the book includes a group of "Letters, Journals, and Biography" which open up to the reader the more intimate experiences and personal reflections of pioneers and of public servants throughout the later years of our country's history. Supplementing these are the delightful and thought-provoking pages revealing personalities and points of view, from "Diedrich Knickerbocker" to the *Epic of America*. Similarly, the short story, the novel, and the drama are represented by excerpts or complete selections from standard authors, together with suggestive lists for addi-

¹ *American Literature*. Edited by Thomas H. Briggs, Max J. Herzberg, and Emma Miller Bolenius. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1933. Pp. xviii+764.

tional reading. The latter are indicative of the editors' constant endeavor to make of the volume a point of departure for wide supplementary reading of a personal nature. High-school pupils will rejoice in the inclusion in full of Booth Tarkington's *Monsieur Beaucaire*. Folk lore of the Indian, the negro, the cowboy, and the lumberjack rounds out the story of the rich contributions of the varying elements of American life to the country's literary history. Most satisfying of all is the ample section of contemporary verse, supported by an equally generous offering from the older poets. "Reflections on Life and Letters," a collection of formal and informal essays, is richer in its emphasis on letters than in its emphasis on life, especially when viewed in terms of the manifold attitudes and problems characteristic of American thought today. Such essays as Brander Matthews' "The Philosophy of the Short-Story," Bliss Perry's "Province of Poetry," and Carl Van Doren's "Note on the Essay" will furnish valuable critical materials for college-preparatory groups. Interesting and unique in an anthology of this kind are the sixty pages of "World Literature" included within the volume, by means of which pupils are to be made conscious of the debt owed by our literature to the older civilizations.

The most singular contributions of *American Literature* are, however, its remarkable flexibility of arrangement and the peculiar adaptability of its lesson helps to individual and class needs. Organized chronologically within types, it provides in seventy-five pages the "Backgrounds of American Literature," a concise presentation of trends, in which individuals are subordinated to the movements and periods of which they were a part. Cross-references unite the literary selections with the discussion of backgrounds and vice versa, an arrangement which makes the book equally valuable for courses organized by chronology or by type. Instructions in the Preface guide the teacher in the proper choice of readings for general, technical, and college-preparatory groups. The lesson helps are organized specifically under fact and thought questions, questions on technique and appreciation (many of which are selected from questions of the College Entrance Examination Board), plans for programs and classroom activities, topics for composition, and objective tests on both literary materials and historical backgrounds. Within the sections appear problems for general class consideration, together with starred activities for superior or college-preparatory groups. Especially helpful also are the suggestions for library work of a reference nature, both for the enrichment of the class discussion and for the practice afforded in the use of the library and reference aids. Extensive reading is emphasized throughout, the helps tending to stimulate the thoughtful relating of selections read both to the experience of the pupils and to previous reading of a similar kind.

Altogether, the book is one which will teach itself. In these days of increased teacher load and responsibility, it should greatly reduce the burden of lesson planning and assignment, especially in the direction of adapting instruction to individual needs. It is likewise well calculated, by the nature of the selections

and by its direction of pupil thought and activity, to achieve its major objective of helping pupils to read, not alone with comprehension, but also with imagination and pleasure.

DORA V. SMITH

UNIVERSITY OF MINNESOTA

CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

GENERAL EDUCATIONAL METHOD, HISTORY, THEORY AND PRACTICE

- BRESLICH, ERNST R. *The Administration of Mathematics in Secondary Schools*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1933. Pp. viii+408. \$3.00.
- BRIGGS, THOMAS H. *Secondary Education*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1933. Pp. x+578. \$2.50.
- DUDLEY, L. LELAND. *The School and the Community: A Study of Local Control in the Public Schools of Massachusetts*. Harvard Studies in Education, Vol. XXII. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press, 1933. Pp. xiv+176. \$2.50.
- Interpretations of Physical Education: Vol. IV, *Physiological Health*. Edited by Jay B. Nash. New York: A. S. Barnes & Co., Inc., 1933. Pp. xii+308. \$2.00.
- KELLY, WILLIAM A. *Educational Psychology*. Milwaukee, Wisconsin: Bruce Publishing Co., 1933. Pp. xx+502. \$2.40.
- The New Leisure Challenges the Schools: Shall Recreation Enrich or Impoverish Life?* Based on a Study Made for the National Recreation Association by Eugene T. Lies. Washington: National Education Association, 1933. Pp. 326.
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